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CALIFORNIA



SAN ANTONIO FALLS, CUERNAVACA

The World To-day Series

**THE
COMING MEXICO.**

Black

BY
JOSEPH KING GOODRICH

*Sometime Professor in the Imperial
Government College, Kyoto*

WITH 32 ILLUSTRATIONS FROM PHOTOGRAPHS



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P R E F A C E

THE title of this book will probably suggest to the reader that I intend to venture into the dangerous domain of prophecy, and presume to give my opinion as to what may be the political future of Mexico. Such, however, is not my intention; for had there been any temptation to do so, the experience of others who have yielded would effectually deter me. One author, who wrote less than ten years ago, expressed the conviction that no prolonged revolution was likely to occur; but even if it did, the good that President Diaz had accomplished could not thereby be undone.

Because Mexico had enjoyed peace for a generation under the dictatorship, practically, of that strong man, it was assumed the other leaders had lost the tendency to seize the power when an opportunity seemed to be given; and the masses had become so convinced that in tranquillity alone lay their true course, as to make it impossible for ambitious leaders, quarrelling amongst themselves, to draw about them the armed forces required to carry out their schemes. In fact, there was no probability of occasion arising to give excuse for civil strife.

Should the people depart from the path of peace which Diaz had blazed so clearly for them, it was contended that the United States would intervene and possibly annex Mexico; for the large interests of American and European investors, as well as the safety of foreign residents generally, would make it necessary to do something of the sort.

The patriotic Mexicans were depicted as being so vigorously opposed to such forcible destruction of their national integrity, that they would bury the hatchet and continue quietly and firmly to support the established government which was President Diaz's legacy to his country.

Another writer, whose opinion was expressed with even greater confidence and within less than five years from the time of penning these words, declares that Mexico owes practically everything to the long sustained government of Porfirio Diaz: "its reorganisation as a Nation; its rehabilitation as a Power among the countries of the earth; and a force hereafter to be reckoned with." The indebtedness cannot be denied; but that the lesson has been taken seriously to heart cannot be affirmed.

Yet, again, the conviction has been confidently expressed that Mexico no longer needs a defender, and is not now in any way dependent upon the architect, that is Diaz, who laid broad the foundation for this Mexico of the Twentieth Century, and himself commenced a superstructure which is to be enduring. It was said that if Diaz must pass away, his guiding hand may be dispensed with, and that without fear of untoward consequences. The Mexicans, leaders and people alike, had come so thoroughly to appreciate and love the blessings which abiding peace conferred, that it was impossible for them to permit of a relapse into the chaos of a quarter of a century or so ago.

But that which was pronounced improbable, or impossible even, has come about, and for more than a year there has been in the northern part of the Republic of Mexico a condition of turmoil and revolution which has caused the United States Government grave anxiety, and compelled it to expend large sums of money in safeguarding the frontier. The property of foreigners has been jeopardised, sometimes

destroyed; their lives have been in danger and some of them have actually been murdered.

This state of affairs must cause a writer to hesitate long before venturing to express another opinion as to the substantiability of Mexico's Government and the permanency of the conditions which President Diaz left when he was driven from his country in 1911. That these conditions should be, is something that everyone who has faith in the possibilities that are spread before a peaceful, progressive Mexico, must regret deeply.

My first visit to Mexico was made in 1866. That was the time of the lumbering old *diligencia*, and I saw some of these on the road between Manzanillo and Colima. They are even now to be seen, I am told, in some of the mountain regions. There were quite a number of my fellow-passengers by the steamer from Panama who were going to Colima by these stage-coaches. No man who could sit a horse ever entrusted himself to those joint-wrenching vehicles; and the travelling I have done in Mexico, when there was no railway, has been in the saddle.

There was not a line of railway in the Republic at that time which merited the title; for even the Vera Cruz-Mexico line was not built; and Mexico was as sleepy, unprogressive a country as one could find. It was not altogether peaceful; because there was war with foreign invaders, as the patriotic Mexicans called the French, and there was jealousy between native leaders. Progress could hardly be said to have begun.

Later, from the north, I made my way down into the country from the American frontier; that, too, was done in the saddle, and it was before the new life had begun to stir. Since then it has been my privilege to see much of the more recent development and to meet many men, not only Mexicans but investors and *bona fide* promoters from various

countries who are lending themselves to the development of Mexico's magnificent natural resources.

The opportunities for actual, personal investigation have not been so exhaustive as I could wish; yet the not inconsiderable knowledge gained has given a certain ability to sift the evidence of others. The combination of personal knowledge and adaptation justifies the expression of great confidence in *The Coming Mexico*.

J. K. GOODRICH

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THE COMING MEXICO

THE COMING MEXICO

CHAPTER I

ANCIENT MEXICO

THE main purpose of this book is, of course, to consider the Mexico that we know to-day and, perhaps, to speculate upon what may be the future fate of the Republic. But before giving our attention strictly to the twenty-seven individual states, the one federal district (the congener of our District of Columbia), and the three territories that make up the country known officially as The United States of Mexico, it will be interesting to consider how the present Republic has developed.

Indeed, we cannot properly understand the Mexico of to-day, unless we know something of the interesting peoples who inhabited all that portion of the continent of North America, which may roughly be defined as embracing these states of our Union, Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, California, and Utah, together with portions of Colorado, Kansas, Oklahoma, and Wyoming, and stretching down quite to the Isthmus of Panama, including, of course, the long, narrow peninsula of Lower California, although that is not yet of much economic importance.

Not forgetting or overlooking what we owe to Humboldt, it is to Prescott, *The Conquest of Mexico*, we turn for practically all that we have of even approximately precise

information and for pretty much all justifiable speculation upon doubtful points in the past. We supplement Prescott with Viscount Kingsborough's monumental work, *The Antiquities of Mexico*, for wider knowledge of the civilisation and culture of the advanced peoples who were in possession of the land when the Spaniards came. So, too, for those who must have been living in the central and northern parts of Old or Greater Mexico, certainly. It is more than likely those people had extended their sway far down into the southern parts of the present Mexico, as well as into some, at least, of the other Central American Republics which have developed and grown up within the past century.

The name, Mexico, was given by the Spaniards to the whole region occupied by numerous tribes who called themselves collectively *Mexica* (the plural form of the singular, *Mexicatl*) or Aztecs. It should be noted that, strictly, when transliterating Aztec words, the letter *x* (or *j*) ought to be given the vocalic value of the English sound *sh*. Therefore, *Mexitli* and *Mexico* would, properly, be pronounced *Meshitli* and *Meshico*. But they do not appear ever to have been so rendered by the Spaniards, who naturally gave to the *x* the ordinary Spanish sound, something similar to the modern German *ch*.* It is impossible to express the softer Spanish sound of that letter *x* with any letters of our alphabet; for it is not precisely the German *ch*. One must learn to imitate the sound as it falls from a Mexican's or Spaniard's lips.

If we cannot all grow quite so enthusiastic over Mexico's ancient history as to say, with some writers, that it is fascinating, no one, hardly, who has given it something more than a passing thought, can be so lethargic as not to agree with us when we say it is exceed-

* See A. J. Lamoureaux's article, Mexico, in Enc. Brit., 11th ed.

ingly interesting. To be able to stand on spots that are simply overflowing with historic interest, must always appeal to those who are ordinarily indifferent or lacking in sentiment.

The student of the history of Mexico may still visit many spots connected with its earliest days. There is, in the very heart of the present City of Mexico, the place where stood the great temple of the Aztec gods. Hard by is the site of Montezuma's palace. That Aztec war-chief, or "emperor" of Mexico, was known to his own people as Xocoyotzin (hō-kō-yot-zen, the *h* strongly aspirated). In and around the palace many Spaniards were ruthlessly slaughtered by the incensed natives on *La Noche Triste* ("The Sorrowful Night") when the European invaders were compelled to flee from the city. After reading what history tells us of the manners and methods of the Spanish conquerors, can we truly say that those Mexicans were without provocation for the vengeance which they wreaked?

Not very far away from the centre of the city, guides still point out what they declare is the very tree beneath which Cortés threw himself down to weep over the untoward defeat of *La Noche Triste*. Then, jumping over the intervening years of about three centuries, the events connected with the War for Mexican Independence, 1811 to 1821, when Spanish influence came to an end, appeal strongly to the historian and student of political institutions. So, likewise, do the many internal troubles which followed that successful attempt to throw off the Spanish yoke, but before anything approaching a settled form of domestic, independent republican government was established. After considering these matters, the thought naturally reverts to the wars of invasion: our own in 1846-7, and that of the French

in 1862, leading up to the episode of "emperor" Maximilian, 1864 to 1867. There are, besides, many other events of more or less importance during the centuries of Mexico's recorded history, some of which will be considered later.

The historian to-day has great difficulty in keeping his wrath from forcible explosion, when he thinks of what we *might* know of Mexico's early history, had not the bigotry and ignorance of Spanish priests and soldiers caused the wanton, senseless destruction of native records — in monument or manuscript. Had all of these which were found been carefully preserved, they could, in all probability, throw a flood of light upon the development — it is, perhaps, too much to say origin — of a civilisation that compelled even the Spaniards to respect it. There is no possibility of comparison between what these last mentioned adventurers met in Mexico and that which the English and French pioneers found in the more northern and eastern parts of the same continent.

We owe very much to the sociological and linguistic investigations of the Roman Catholic missionaries in many parts of the world; but we must, speaking candidly yet as charitably as possible, also hold them responsible for mad destruction of "heathen" records and material that would be of inestimable value to the ethnologist. Mexico is one of the worst examples of the irremediably bad effects of unwise religious zeal. The destruction wrought by those first European visitors who, honestly no doubt, thought they were doing a sacred duty, was never compensated for by the efforts of others.

After the Conquest, a few Spanish chroniclers tried to collect oral traditions. Some of the natives who had learnt Spanish professed to write a history of their country, based upon those same traditions and the little



COURTYARD OF THE FEDERAL PALACE, QUERETARO

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AMPHIBOL

that survived of records. The combined efforts of these two classes of chroniclers produced a considerable amount of material which Prescott digested and used in writing his "Conquest of Mexico." Mr. Hubert Howe Bancroft has found this material helpful in writing his "History of the Pacific States"; a series that includes Mexico and Central America in its scope. Bancroft had the great advantage of having secured, by purchase, the remarkable collection of E. G. Squier and a large part of that of Maximilian. That the material supplied by the earliest Spanish chroniclers and native historians is a blending of a very few facts and a great deal of fiction, need not be affirmed.

Mexican civilisation is known to be one of great antiquity. It was, too, of a high order even when the Spaniards first came in touch with it; although there are irrefutable evidences that it had then been lowered from the higher plane it had attained in previous times. But of the earliest inhabitants of that country, practically nothing is known. The ruins which are scattered all over the land indicate conclusively, both by their size and by their character, that the work of those who precede by ages the Aztecs of Spanish days, was of an order which connotes high civilisation. The unsolvable mystery which surrounds the prehistoric builders of those monuments is, even now, increased by the discovery, from time to time, of strange relics.

The jade ornaments which almost certainly came from China; the stone idols and statues that bear a marked and perplexing resemblance to Egyptian productions of times long, long past; the structures which seem to follow with singular, inexplicable fidelity the ancient architecture of the Nile Valley pyramids; the temples and palaces that are certainly allied architecturally to

the similar edifices of Japan and continental Asia: all these point almost irrefutably to Asiatic influences. This conviction is further emphasised by the prevalence at this day among the Indians of Mexico, of some customs which are assumed to have had their origin in the extreme east of Asia. These resemblances go so far that they almost seem to connect the religion of those earliest historic and prehistoric peoples of Central America with that of China and Japan. This resemblance, in various matters, between dwellers upon the western and the eastern shores of the Pacific Ocean, at least south of the present boundary of the United States, must be something more than accidental. Possibly further consideration of this interesting subject in other volumes of this Series may engage our attention hereafter.

But this resemblance may be, after all, a reflex action. Many ethnologists are disposed to agree with Count de Gobineau's theory that North America was the original home of the Yellow race of mankind. These people made their way by the Aleutian Islands or they easily crossed Behring Sea into Asia and drove back the few aborigines, in times so remote that even Chinese chronology does not reach them.

The physical structure of the earth and the Pacific Ocean's currents have, we know, made it a comparatively easy matter for people from Eastern Asia to reach North America. It is entirely justifiable speculation on the ethnologist's part to assume that some of those expeditions were deliberately made: it is a matter of historic fact that many were made unintentionally by crews of vessels that had been driven off the coast of Japan, or even China, by stress of weather. If we know this much to have happened in the fifteenth century, we are

entirely justified in assuming that it occurred in the centuries prior thereto; and why may we not carry our speculation further and argue that people did go from East to West across the narrow waters of the Northern Pacific, as well as from West to East where it is wider?

The resemblances in customs, religion, physical appearance, and even language that have been noted in historic times, between peoples of the western strip of the American hemisphere, and some of those of Eastern Asia, may be purely accidental; but we can hardly believe it. Yet which is the older, which is the parent and which the offspring, it is beyond our power to say.

Certainly no one now disputes the claim of antiquarians — based, of course, mainly upon native tradition — that the whole of greater Mexico was inhabited by a succession of highly cultured races who displayed exceptional ability in rearing great temples and ornate palaces, of which the ruins yet remain. The name given by native tradition to the greater Mexico of antiquity was Anahuac. It could never have been the name of a great Indian empire, although some writers make that statement; for there is no reason, legendary or concrete, to suppose that the loosely allied tribes of Indians ever had any form of government approaching imperial organisation. On the other hand, we do not feel called upon to admit the correctness of the declaration made by some other authors that this name, Anahuac, was never applied to the whole of what we know as Mexico.

The Toltecs were no doubt the most advanced in every way of all those Mexican peoples; but whence they came is unknown. Prescott assigns the date of their arrival in Mexico to the seventh century of our era; but some authorities contend that they were in possession of the

land quite twenty centuries B.C. They are credited in legend with having built a great city which they called Tula, "and an attempt has been made to identify this prehistoric city with a little village of adobe huts and magnificent ruins not far from the capital. This is but one of many instances in which Toltec names of towns and districts still survive." *

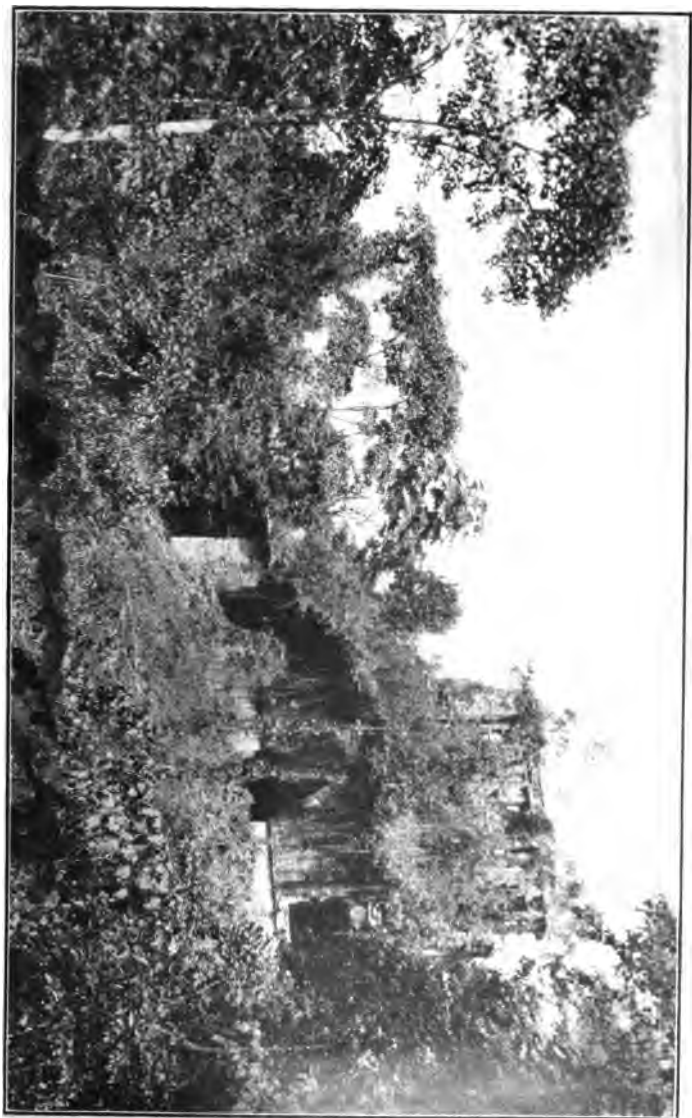
There are ancient legends which tell us that Quetzalcoatl, a mysterious messiah, styled The Fair God, made his appearance at Tula. This myth is another remarkable instance of the prominence given in such folklore tales to a *white* ancestor, redeemer, or conqueror. The Aztecs were not black, to be sure; they were, as their descendants are, copper-coloured, or yellow. Yet they described Quetzalcoatl as "a white man with a long, flowing beard, who taught the Toltecs the arts of civilisation, agriculture, and war; then sailed away to the West, to his own country. After his departure he was deified by the Toltecs, who represented him in their sculptures as a winged serpent. He had promised to return after many years, and this pledge was handed down from generation to generation." †

In one important respect, and it marks their superiority, the Toltecs seem to have differed widely from the Aztecs of later times. They did not offer up human beings as sacrifice upon the altars of their temples. Fruits and flowers were their only oblation. It is manifest that these Toltecs were well advanced in culture and even refinement. They were peaceful and temperate, and their religion appears to have been a form of Nature-worship.

A seeming resemblance to the social system of certain

* "Mexico," W. E. Carson.

† Cf. Prescott, H. H. Bancroft, et als.



TALAYA TEMPLE, PALENQUE

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peoples of Asia is to be noted in that there were distinct castes among the Toltecs; priests, warriors, merchants, agriculturalists. The order of precedence varies noticeably from the Asiatic prototype, if we admit Asiatic influence, in that the farmers appear at the bottom of the scale and soldiers are second in prominence.

Another curious point of resemblance to Asia is to be noted in the fact that the Toltecs appear to have used two forms of their picture-writing; one for superiors, the other for inferiors. Remembering that the Chinese ideograph (the medium for written communication used in China and Japan) is based upon the imitative picture, the Toltec method corresponds somewhat to the classical and popular forms of language still employed in China and Japan. In both of those countries the ordinary spoken language, that used when addressing those who are considered inferior, either in the social scale or in education, may be expressed in a simplified form of writing.

It is not now possible to determine with precision the full extent of territory over which the Toltecs exercised dominion. That it was greater, to the north certainly, than the present Republic of Mexico, hardly admits of doubt. It would seem, also, to be a justifiable assumption that they considered themselves the rulers of the indefinite regions far to the north; whence, after a considerable time, there came tribes of fierce people who made war upon the Toltecs. Later came other hordes, but of people who were rather more civilised than those last mentioned.

All of these intruders appear to have been ethnically related to the Toltecs, for they must have used the same language, and they quickly adapted themselves to their new environment. Here, again, we may note another

curious point of resemblance between Mexico and Asia. As the Toltecs gave way before the later invaders and went southward seeking fresh homes, the newcomers adapted themselves to the culture they found. So, too, as the Chinese advanced from the west of Asia,* whatever they found that appeared good in their eyes they adopted, and they assimilated the strangers whom they conquered.

The Tezcucans, one of those invading hordes, made considerable progress in civilisation. Another company, the Tarascans, whose descendants are seen in the State of Michoacan, were one of nine tribes who seem to have reached Mexico by crossing a narrow arm of the sea on wooden rafts or hurdles. This suggests the Gulf of California. Most of these tribes developed some system of picture-writing resembling, although rather superior to, that of the North American Indians. There is, in the City of Mexico, one of these picture-writings which depicts the migration of the Tarascans. This is reproduced in several works, and is really quite graphic.

It was when the latest and probably the most important of these later invaders appeared in Mexico that the name Aztec crystallised into permanent form. It is suggested that these people came from the northern part of California. Their legends declare that an oracle commanded them to build a city on a site that would be indicated by an eagle perched on a cactus or prickly pear, and grasping a snake in its talons.)

Moving southward, and always on the watch for that miraculous sign, they came to the lake in the Valley of Mexico, where now stands the capital, and here they saw a golden eagle resting on a prickly pear and holding the snake in his claws. Their high priest, *Tenoch*, a

* See "The Coming China."

reminder of the Israelites' Moses, commanded them to obey the sign. They settled on the shore of the lake, built a temple, and founded a city to which they gave the name *Tenochtitlan* ("the place of the cactus"), in honour of their high priest and to commemorate the sign. But inasmuch as the priest's name is interpreted as meaning "the stone cactus," we are led to suspect that this is rather "reasoning backward!"

The city was founded and grew into a great place, and the legend of the eagle, the serpent, and the prickly pear is religiously preserved in the coat-of-arms of Mexico, and appears as well on the coins and the flag. The name *Tenochtitlan* was replaced by *Mexico*, in honour of *Mexilli*, the Aztec God of War, and this soon came to denote the whole country. The appearance of that ancient city could not have been very dissimilar to that of Venice. The earliest constructed sections were, no doubt, on the mainland; but off the shore of the lake were a number of islands. On these were additions to the city, and numerous canals traversing the entire place in all directions carried out the resemblance to the Queen of the Adriatic quite strikingly.

The great temple to the gods stood on a pyramid over one hundred feet high and it was reached by one hundred and fourteen stone steps each wide enough for thirty horsemen to march abreast. It is hardly necessary to state that this description is taken from Spanish authorities; the mention of "horsemen" shows this clearly, because the Aztecs knew nothing about using horses until after the Spaniards came. This huge pyramid and the great temple are described by the Spanish chroniclers in such a way as to make the likeness to Egyptian structures of a similar kind most conspicuous.

The allusion which has just been made to the Aztec

pantheon, Teocalli, calls for brief mention of their religion: this we adapt and condense from Prescott.

It is plain that the Aztecs placed at the head of their pantheon One Supreme Being who was the Ruler of the whole Universe. This statement is supported, if not entirely confirmed, by the allusions made to him in their prayers; for in these are expressions equivalent to our "the God in whom we live and move and have our being," "omnipresent," "who knoweth all the thoughts of man and who bestoweth all good gifts," "without whom man is as the grass of the field," "the invisible, incorporeal, one God, of absolute perfection and purity," "in the shadow of thy wings will I make my refuge, until these calamities be overpast."

Yet it was with the Aztecs as it is with many other peoples who have attained to just about the same plane in their religion. It was impossible for them to conceive of just One God, notwithstanding that they assigned to the head of all their gods such attributes as are denoted by their ascriptions. Their tendency towards Nature-worship, although it never developed into a complete and consistent Nature-worship, compelled them to assign to a number of lesser deities the provinces of ruling the elements, of directing the changes of seasons, of determining the occupations of man, and a host of other functions in the division of divine supervision. There were, accordingly, thirteen principal deities and several hundred subordinates. It is probably true that even the Aztec priests themselves could not have made an exhaustive list of all the minor deities.

At the head was Huitzilopochtli, the terrible Mexican Mars, "the mythic leader and chief deity of the Aztecs, dominant tribe of the Nahua nation." * He has already

* H. H. Bancroft.

been mentioned by his alternative name, Mexitli. His temples were the most stately of the public edifices, and their altars reeked with the blood of human beings. "It was not merely for conquest and tribute that the fierce Mexicans ravaged the neighbour-lands, but they had a stronger motive than either in the desire to obtain multitudes of prisoners whose hearts were to be torn out by the sacrificing priests to propitiate a pantheon of gods who well personified their bloodthirsty worshippers." * When the great temple of Tenochtitlan (Mexico City) was completed, twenty thousand victims were sacrificed during the four days of the dedicatory services.

The Aztecs present a singular contradiction in their character. It would seem that they must have been naturally of bloodthirsty disposition, for they incurred the ill-will of their neighbours wherever they went; and their treachery sometimes brought upon them condign punishment. Yet in spite of all this, Prescott found himself able to say that it seems as though some portion of their religion "had emanated from a comparatively refined people open to gentle influences, while the rest breathes a spirit of unmitigated ferocity". It naturally suggests the idea of two sources, and authorises the belief that the Aztecs had inherited from their predecessors a mild faith on which was afterwards engrafted their own mythology."

It must not be understood that we attribute to the Aztecs an inherent culture and civilisation which impressed favourably the Europeans, when first these latter met the Mexicans. On the contrary, there is no reason to believe that the Aztecs were naturally anything but a fierce, migratory people when they arrived in Mexico.

* Edward Burnett Tylor.

But their wisdom in adopting the arts and civilisation of the Toltecs and other tribes, whom they supplanted, bore fruit, until the domains over which the first Montezuma exercised absolute lordship were probably something like one hundred and eighty thousand square miles in extent. This area is but a small fraction of the millions of square miles which were included in the Greater Mexico of later times.

We reluctantly leave the consideration of the ancient land of Mexico with this very brief study. Doubtless every one of our readers will know that very few of the most interesting topics have been discussed; but our purpose was to give merely a suggestion of what the Spaniards found when they appeared. The Azteca were, after all, only the last of nine ethnically related hordes who swept down into Mexico from the north, the Toltecs, the Chichimecs, the Xochimilca, the Chalca, the Tepaneca, the Acolhua, the Tlahuica, the Tlascalteca, the Azteca. It was, therefore, a composite civilisation which the Europeans found.

CHAPTER II

PHYSICAL MEXICO

THE shape of Mexico has been well likened to a great cornucopia, a Horn of Plenty. Its mouth opens towards the United States, and some may see in this fact a portentous sign of even greater pouring out than has ever yet been of Mexico's wealth into the coffers of already rich Americans.

The extreme northwest point of the Republic is $32^{\circ} 42'$ North latitude, where the boundary between California and Lower California reaches the shore of the Pacific Ocean. The southernmost point is $14^{\circ} 30' 42''$ North latitude at the mouth (right-hand bank) of the Suchiate River, on the Pacific coast; that river forming a part of the boundary between Mexico and the republic of Guatemala. "The boundary line with Guatemala, for a long time in dispute, was fixed by the treaties of 1882 and 1895. It is an arbitrary line and follows only two natural lines of demarcation — the Suchiate River from the Pacific coast to its source, and the Chixoy and Usumacinta rivers from near the sixteenth parallel to a point on the latter 25 kilometres south of Tenosique (Tabasco). Between these rivers the boundary line is determined by the peaks of Tacaná, Buenavista, and Ixbul, and from the Usumacinta eastward, it follows two parallels of latitude, one on the point of departure from that river, and the other the longer, on that of $17^{\circ} 49'$ [N.] to the British Honduras frontier. The boundary with British Honduras was determined

by a treaty of 1893 and is formed in great part by the Hondo River down to the head of Chetumal Bay, and thence through that bay to the Boca Bacalar Chica — the channel separating Tucàtan from Ambergris Cay."

"The northern boundary line was fixed by the Guadalupe-Hidalgo treaty of 1848, and the Gadsden treaty of 1853. It follows the Rio Grande del Norte from its mouth northwestward to latitude $31^{\circ} 47'$ North, thence on that parallel West one hundred miles, thence South to latitude $31^{\circ} 20' N.$, thence due West to the 111th meridian, thence in a straight line (nearly W.N.W.) to a point on the Colorado River twenty miles below the mouth of the Gila River, thence northward to the mouth of the Gila, and thence, nearly due west, along the old line between Upper and Lower California, to a point on the Pacific coast one marine league [three geographical miles of 6,082.66 feet] south of the southernmost point of San Diego Bay; this line has a total length of 1810 miles, of which the Rio Grande comprises 1136 and the land route 674 miles." *

The small end of the Mexican cornucopia curves towards the southeast and then nearly north, terminating with the States of Campeche and Yucatan. The concave curve of the horn of plenty, on the Gulf of Mexico, is not broken by any important indentations throughout its entire length of about 1400 miles. Beyond Cape Catoche, the extreme northeast point of Yucatan, the Mexican coast borders for some 325 miles on the Caribbean Sea.

The convex curve of the cornucopia is not quite so regular as is the east coast. Including the deep, narrow indentation of the Gulf of California, the coast line on Pacific waters is nearly 5000 miles.

* Enc. Brit.

From northwest to southeast is the direction of Mexico's greatest length, approximately 1900 miles: its greatest width, across the northern section, is about 750 miles. At the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, where the country is narrowest, the width is not quite 140 miles. The extent of the Republic is now given, from official figures, as 1,962,899 square kilometres, 759,907 square miles.* Other statisticians make it as great as 769,290 square miles. For comparison, it may be stated that the total area of Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, and California is 659,740 square miles. The long, narrow peninsula of Lower California is parallel to the mainland and extends from the boundary of the State of California (U.S.A.) southward, terminating with Cape San Lucas, latitude $22^{\circ} 53' N.$, longitude $109^{\circ} 55' W.$, a distance of nearly 760 miles.

The main physical features of Mexico are the great central plateau, enclosed by chains of well-defined mountains on the east and west; a belt of lower land; the fringes of lowlands along both coasts; a detached mountainous section in the southeast belonging, physically, to the Central American Plateau; and the low, sandy plain of the Peninsula of Yucatan. The islands belonging to the Republic are almost a negligible quantity.

The mountain ranges which define the great central plateau of Mexico are called Sierra Madre Oriental, on the east, and Sierra Madre Occidental, on the west. It is rather interesting, philologically, to note the fondness of the Mexicans, as inheritors of the Spanish tongue, for the use of the word *Sierra* (literally, "a saw," feminine) when naming a mountain range. The names of these two principal chains, then, convey the idea of "The

* H. H. Bancroft.

Eastern Mother Range of Mountains" and "The Western Mother Range of Mountains." Their fecundity in sending forth children and their maternal watchfulness are both present in the thought of a loyal citizen of the protected plateau.

The southern boundary of the plateau may be said to be the Cordillera de Anahuac, that crosses the country a short distance south of the capital, Mexico City; but this range is not at all sharply defined, particularly when looked at from the plateau itself. Indeed, there is no true *Cordillera*, "range of mountains" in cross section, in any part of Mexico. The names here used are rather euphemisms and are, in fact, scarcely known to any but the scholarly Mexicans. The ordinary natives, especially the Indians who live on or near the mountains, have a great many different names for the various sections; these are known locally only. There are a goodly number of peaks in certain parts of the Republic which attain great height: some of these will form the subject for discussion in another chapter.

The peculiar orographical structure of Mexico, a wide central plateau with a mean altitude of 8000 feet in the extreme south and sloping gently downward to the north and the basin of the great stream, Rio Grande del Norte, hemmed in by fairly lofty mountain ranges that present formidable barriers on the east and west, effectually prevents the development of rivers of any appreciable size. The influence of these mountain obstacles — which also serve to desiccate the moisture-laden air from the sea on either side — is increased by meteorological conditions; for the rainfall throughout the plateau is very light, and the forests are very scant, save on the sides of some of the loftier mountains.

There are, consequently, no rivers of any importance

whatever. There is but one which has a length greater than 500 miles; and "river navigation" is a term which may almost be ignored when considering Mexico's economic development. The Rio Grande del Norte, or Rio Bravo del Norte (the Rye-o Grand of too many Americans) is essentially an American stream. It rises in the United States and has no Mexican tributaries worthy of notice.

The peninsula of Yucatan has no rivers at all. In the territory of Lower California, the insignificant streams in the northern part of the peninsula are not entitled to be dignified by the name of "river." The absence of rivers is due to the restricted area and to the character of the soil, which absorbs moisture as does a sponge. The longest river of Mexico is the Rio Grande de Santiago. It rises in the State of Mexico, and is called Lerma until it flows into Lake Chapala; after that it receives the more pretentious name as far as its mouth in the Territory of Tepic on the Pacific. The "Great River of Santiago" is, after all, only 540 miles long.

There are, however, some rivers which deserve passing consideration because of their wildness and scenery: the Santiago is one, the Rio de las Balsas, or Mescala (State of Tlaxcala), Rio Yaqui (Chihuahua and Sonora), Rio Grijalva (Chiapas and Tabasco) are some others. When we say that navigation is a term which may practically be ignored in discussing Mexican rivers, it must be understood that the stricture is used in rather a precise sense. There are some rivers emptying into the Gulf of Mexico that may be navigated by small cargo boats. The Grijalva is useful in this way for something like 90 miles, and the Usumacinta, 270 miles; both in the State of Tabasco.

There are a great many biggish ponds in Mexico; but not many lakes and, with the exception of Lake Chapala, none of them is of great size. Most of the lakes are found in landlocked depressions; and of these the best known are those in the Valley of Mexico — Texcoco, Chalco, Xochimilco, Zumpango, Xaltocan, and San Cristobal. These are almost certainly the remains of what was once a truly great lake which filled the entire valley. They receive some surface drainage, but nevertheless are slowly yet surely drying up. The careful and thorough student of Mexico's physical geography will be much interested in studying the inland lakes of that country in their relation to material development.

The coast lakes, tide-water lagoons, are very numerous along the Gulf of Mexico coast, and some of them are of considerable size, Madre, for example, being 130 miles long. They are mostly navigable, in a way, in spite of their general shoalness, and even now are of service commercially. When the plan, only proposed at present yet already receiving some tangible recognition, for connecting and improving the channel along the northern coast of Vera Cruz and that of Tamaulipas is carried out, there will be a most useful and safe inland water route for some hundreds of miles. "The north coast of Yucatan is remarkable for the extensive banks built up by the Gulf current for five to seven miles from the shore-line. Inside the present sandy coast is a peculiar tide-water channel called the Rio Lagartes, which follows almost the whole northern shore, with occasional openings or *bocas* connecting with the open sea. It is apparently of the same character as the lagoons of Tamaulipas." On the Pacific coast, there are quite a number of lagoons; but they are usually shoal,

nearly always little more than marshes, and of no service commercially. The Pacific coast of the Republic excels the Gulf of Mexico coast in possessing some really admirable harbours. Discussion of these, however, will be reserved for the chapter on Mexico's Seaports.

Its physiography is, perhaps, one of the country's most interesting features. The people of Mexico themselves say that their land is made up of three distinct regions. These may roughly be likened to concentric circles: the outer one is a fringe of lowlands along the coast on both sides. This region is called *tierras calientes*, "hot lands," and it is, generally speaking, a sandy zone along the shore, although in places it stretches well back. It is a tide-water plain broken by inland channels and lagoons.

Las tierras calientes have always born a bad reputation from a sanitary point of view. This was once justly deserved; but conditions have been much improved by the efforts of scientists, who have succeeded in controlling the ravages of yellow fever to a great degree. Sections that were formerly considered absolutely fatal to the white man are now not any more dangerous than any other similar tropical or sub-tropical region; provided always that reasonable care is taken as to diet and that exposure to the sun is avoided. Vera Cruz, which was stamped as malignant at all seasons but a few years ago, has been so cleansed and regenerated that it is now a popular winter resort and is not especially shunned at any time.

It is impossible, within the limits of space here available, to give a description of the marvellous variety and magnificence of the flora in Mexico's *tierras calientes*. There is no remarkably preponderating species, as one often finds in temperate regions. There is a confused

mass of great trees, many of them overrun by enormous creepers, or covered with parasitic plants, orchids, and vines, all struggling together to reach upward to the sunlight that cannot possibly penetrate to their roots or the surface of the ground.

Mr. Lamoureaux's statement:* "This struggle for existence has emphatically changed the habits of some plants, turning the palm and the cactus into climbers, and some normal species into epiphytes," is entirely confirmed by the observation of the present writer. It cannot be necessary to speak here at length of the luscious tropical and sub-tropical fruits of this region — oranges, bananas, cocoanuts, limes, pomegranates, aguacates, guanabanas, and a variety of fruity nuts. Some of these are merely names to most readers; and it is safe to say that no one, who has not eaten even the familiar ones when plucked ripe and mature, can have any idea of what the delicacy of these tropical fruits really is. With forests yielding mahogany and numerous other valuable woods (and Mexican mahogany, rosewood, etc., bear a deserved reputation for excellence), with a prolific soil and a wonderful climate, making it possible, in some cases, to raise three crops in one year, these hot lands must have a marvellous future.

The line of demarcation between the flora of the *tierras calientes* and that of the *tierras templadas*, "the temperate lands," in most of its area a sub-tropical zone, cannot be drawn sharply. There are many other useful woods and plants in the hot lands; some of the latter are of great value to the pharmacist. This lowland region varies in width from a narrow strip along the foreshore up to forty miles. There are several places on the Pacific coast where the mountain spurs

* *Opus cit.*

extend quite down to the ocean. This is especially true in the States of Guerrero and Oaxaca, as we shall see when Mexico's Seaports are considered in a later chapter. In the southern part of the State of Vera Cruz, in Tabasco, Campeche, and Yucatan, these low shorelands extend farther into the interior than anywhere else. In the gravelly lands along the foot of the encircling hills, especially in the higher parts of this *talus*, the soil is remarkably fertile and the vegetation exceptionally luxuriant.

The hot zone is generally considered to reach from sea-level along both the Gulf of Mexico and the Pacific coasts, up to an elevation of something over 3000 feet. It then gives place to the *tierras templadas*, which is commonly reckoned to extend onward and upward to an elevation of approximately 6000 feet. It is considered to include the greater portions of the following named states: Coahuila, Nuevo Leon, San Luis Potosi, nearly one-half of Tamaulipas, a small part of Vera Cruz, nearly the whole of Chiapas and Oaxaca, most of Guerrero, Jalisco, Sinaloa, and Sonora, as well as small portions of the inland states Puebla, Mexico, Morelos, and Michoacan.

A glance at the map will show that this belt intervenes between the hot lands and *tierras frias*, "the cold lands" of the great central plateau. The mean annual temperature of the region is about 75° F., and in it are most of the popular spas and health resorts, some of which will be discussed hereafter. Naturally, the flora of this belt is such as characterises regions bordering a colder zone on one side and a hotter one on the other. Oaks are common everywhere.

"In southern Mexico the pine is found at even lower elevations where the tropical growth has been

destroyed by cultivation and fire. The lower slopes of the sierras, especially those of southern Mexico, are well forested and include an immense number of species. The most common families on the eastern slopes, where the precipitation is heavy, are the magnolias, crotons, mimosas, acacias, myrtles, oaks, plane-trees, and bamboos. Palms are common. The chestnut abounds in many places. The cacti are almost as numerous as on the open plateau. On the southern slopes of the Ajusco and other sierras considerable forests of the *ahuehuete* (*Taxodium distichum*) are to be found. The *higuerilla*, or castor-oil plant, is widely distributed throughout the plateau and the open plains of the lower zones. In some localities the characteristic types of the two climatic extremes, the palm and the pine, are to be found growing side by side." But while there may be plenty of bamboos, the Mexican has a great deal to learn from the Asiatic before he even begins to get from that plant a tithe of the benefit it is capable of conferring. In Japan and China especially—and almost equally throughout the whole of the Far East—the bamboo is invaluable. It supplies food, it furnishes articles of raiment: between these extremes, it is difficult to think of a use to which the bamboo is not put. There is no reason why the Mexican should not make it equally serviceable.

Above the temperate circle, rises the *tierras frias* ("the cold lands") which range from about 5600 feet above sea-level to an altitude of 8200 feet. This section includes all the higher portions of Mexico's plateau, and it may be said to correspond very closely to those temperate regions of the United States, the Middle West for example, and central section, where killing frosts rarely occur. Yet even in those parts of this *tierra*

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A MAGUEY PLANT

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fria that actually attain a lofty altitude, the heat of the sun imparts an almost sub-tropical character to the country.

Higher than the *tierras frias*, which as a matter of actual fact are not "cold lands" in the precise meaning we should attach to the expression, there are various sections where a colder climate, corresponding to that of the upper temperate zone, is encountered. Here cereals thrive and stock-raising and forest industries are profitably prosecuted. Again, still higher, there are a few almost isolated peaks, Colima, on the west, Orizaba, near the east coast, Iztaccihuatl and Popocatepetl, about the middle, are some of these, which tower away up into the realm of annual or perpetual snow and ice. A number of these peaks will claim our attention when we speak, in a later chapter, of the temptation to go mountaineering in Mexico.

The general appearance of Mexico's great central plateau, north of the Cordillera de Anahuac, which is a weakly defined transverse range, is that of a dusty, treeless plain. It may be true, orographically, that the Cordillera de Anahuac culminates in the great Popocatepetl (17,782 feet) and Iztaccihuatl (16,705 feet); but as a physical boundary of the plateau, few Mexicans think of any such connection.

There is very little natural vegetation throughout the entire extent of the plateau: ragged yucca trees (not utterly useless industrially and ornamentally), many species of agave and cactus, scrubby mesquite bushes, sage-brush, and occasional clumps of coarse grass are the normal features. The short rainy season, which, however, not infrequently fails altogether, quickly changes the appearance of the plateau. New grass promptly appears, and wheat and maize are planted and

in due time harvested. The agaves of this great plain are known in the south chiefly by the *magueys*, from which the national beverages, *pulque* and *mescal*, of the middle and lower classes are prepared. Of this industry, since it pertains to the manners and customs of the people, more will be said in another place.

In central and southern Mexico, the mountain sides are fairly well timbered up to a height of 13,500 feet, and juniper bushes persist for some hundreds of feet higher. There are plenty of evergreen as well as deciduous oaks in these mountain forests.

To avoid possible repetition, discussion of Mexican geology is deferred until we come to consider the mining industry.

CHAPTER III

PREHISTORIC MEXICO

THE aboriginal inhabitants of Mexico are prehistoric beyond hope of illumination. While there is no evidence that they were as attractive as the immediate predecessors of the Aztecs, still there are indications that they were distinctly in advance of the Indians who dwelt in the prairies of what is now the United States. When, however, we reach the time of even the first Nahua bands, there appear forthwith indications of a somewhat highly organised government.

Evidently each band of those migrating Nahuas possessed itself of a part of the great central valley of Mexico; but not always was the occupation a peaceful one, even among related tribes of invaders. While each ruler in the separate divisions appears to have been absolute in his own country, in time of war or when the general interests called for concerted action — against the indigenes, it is to be assumed — they seem to have acted together as a confederacy. The powers of the units were apparently divided in some such a way as this: two-fifths each to Mexico and Tezcuco, and one-fifth to Tlacopan. In these same proportions were divided the spoils of war, slaves and material, and allotted the conquered lands. It was, no doubt, this confederation which misled some of the earliest European observers to assume that there was a great Aztec empire.

It is surely a mistake to speak of "Aztec civilisation,"

if we give to the last comers of the Nahuatlacatl stock, — those whom we have designated the Azteca, — entire credit for what Europeans found in the way of advancement and culture, when the Spaniards arrived in Mexico early in the sixteenth century. As a matter of fact, had the true Aztecs been permitted to work their way according to their nature, it is more than doubtful if they would ever have achieved the “armies, official administration, courts of justice, high agriculture, and mechanical arts, and, what struck the white men especially, stone buildings whose architecture and sculpture were often of dimensions and elaborateness to astonish the builders and sculptors of Europe.” We shall see presently how entirely dependent the Aztecs were upon some of their ethnically allied predecessors in the land.

If we follow other ethnologists by adopting the term *Nahua* for the whole series of these immigrants from the northwest, it should be borne in mind that, etymologically, there is no warrant for connecting this word with the somewhat similar word *Anahuac*, that has been already used. The former does not appear to have had any descriptive or geographical meaning, and merely denoted the various bands of people who spoke (with dialects, possibly) a common language. The latter means “the country by the water,” and was, apparently, first used to designate the lofty plateau of central Mexico, almost encircled by mountains. This name was given because of the many salt ponds and lakes which were found there. That it came to have a wider application is doubtless a fact.

We know that there are records bearing dates which have been sufficiently identified as to bring them within the twelfth and thirteenth centuries of our era. Edward Burnett Tylor, writing of Mexico's Ancient His-

tory,* says: "The native history of Mexico and Central America is entitled to more respect than the mere recollections of savage tribes. The Mexican pictures so far [closely] approached writing proper as to set down legibly the names of persons and places and the dates of events, and at least helped the professional historians to remember the traditions repeated orally from generation to generation. Thus actual documents of native Aztec history, or copies of them, are still open to the study of scholars, while after the conquest interpretations of these were drawn up in writing by Spanish-educated Mexicans, and histories founded on them with the aid of traditional memory were written by Ixtilxochitl and Tezozomoc. In Central America the rows of complex hieroglyphs to be seen sculptured on the ruined temples probably served a similar purpose. The documents written by natives in later times thus more or less represent real records of the past, but the task of separating myth from history is of the utmost difficulty." There are, besides these admitted records, some traditions of national events which are recognised by historians as having some substantial value, because they are reasonably verified by names of places, tribes, and persons.

Before going further, note must be taken of the slight contradiction that seems to be made by two writers who prepared different sections of the article on Mexico for the *Encyclopædia Britannica*.† One apparently gives his support to the theory that the Toltecs were an aboriginal race who occupied the country included in the present States of Vera Cruz and Tabasco, whence they extended their dominions westward into the plateau, perhaps beyond the present capital. The other

* See *Enc. Brit.*

† See Vol. XVIII, eleventh edition, p. 322 (d) and p. 331 (b).

writer treats the Toltecs as having been the earliest comers of the Nahua stock, and describes them as having arrived in Mexico, from their northern home, in the sixth century. Which writer is correct, there is no way to determine, nor does it really matter very much. But our own inclination is to subscribe to the latter theory.

The Toltecs laid the foundation of the culture of the Nahua nations. They introduced Indian corn and cotton into Mexico, and if we cannot now identify their traditional place of origin, Huehuetlapallan, which they are said to have left fourteen hundred years ago, there are numerous evidences of the existence of the nation.

The little we know of the localities in which Indian corn (maize) and cotton (in America) are truly indigenous, and the association of these useful plants with the Toltecs, lend some colour to the first of the theories, which speculatively determine the original habitat of these people, that have just been mentioned. But their acquaintance with these plants may have been formed *after* the Toltecs were driven farther south than Mexico proper by other groups of Nahuas who came from the north later than themselves. The "introduction" would then have taken place *after* some of them were recalled to central Mexico.

The name Toltecatl, signifying "an inhabitant of Tolan, the land of reeds," has been, by some authorities, identified geographically as a "site in the present Tulan or Tula, north of the valley of Anahuac, where a Toltec kingdom of some extent seems to have had its centre."

The name of Quetzalcoatl has already been mentioned; but we must now speak more about him because of the influence for good that is accredited to him. If he was not strictly a founder or a teacher of religion, he was

certainly a saintly ruler and a great civiliser, so that there was reason for the Toltecs deifying him, and for that reverence continuing on into the times of those who supplanted the Toltecs.

Quetzalcoatl is described as having come from Tullan or from Yucatan, although the legends differ very much upon this point. He is alleged to have dwelt among the Toltecs for twenty years, "teaching men to follow his austere and virtuous life; to hate all violence and war; to sacrifice no man or beast on the altars, but to give mild offerings of bread and flowers and perfumes; and to do penance by the votaries drawing blood with thorns from their own bodies." It must be noted how inseparable from the Nahuatlacatl idea of religion was the necessity for making blood flow.

Quetzalcoatl is credited with having taught his followers the art of recording events by means of picture-writing, and to have invented a calendar. That the Aztec celebration in 1195 A.D., of "tying up the bundle of years" in order to wind up one cycle and begin a new one, is directly connected with Quetzalcoatl's calendar, is something which is probably more than idle legend. The name of this festival, the most solemn in the Mexican annals, was *xiuhmolpilli*, or "year-binding." Their cycle was one of fifty-two years. They believed, as did the Hindus, that this world had already been destroyed three or four times, and that this catastrophe would happen again at the end of a cycle.

The Aztec calendar and their system of notation are interesting and merit a few moments' consideration. But first, in order to make clear what comes a little later, we must mention the Asiatic system of marking time. The sexagenary cycle, the Chinese assert, was contrived during the reign of Emperor Hwang-ti, 2637 B.C. He

was a primeval monarch and is credited with having been the inventor of writing. This cycle was used in China, as well as in all tributary or dependent countries, such as Tibet, Mongolia, Manchuria, Korea, etc. This apparent limitation is not intended to exclude the fact that other peoples used the sixty-year cycle. Just when this calendar was introduced into Japan is not known precisely; but probably it reached that country with the first Chinese books and the art of writing, somewhere about 284 A.D. In Japan it was discarded in 1873, when the Gregorian calendar was adopted. In China its discontinuance began with the first day of January, 1912, although all the other associated peoples have not yet agreed to the innovation; nor have the Chinese themselves done so *en masse*.

The cycle was formed by combining two separate sets of characters: one derived from the five elements, wood, fire, earth, metal, and water, each of which was again divided into "elder brother" and "younger brother." A separate character being given to each division, there was evolved a series of "ten celestial stems." The second principal series was derived from the twelve palaces, "the twelve terrestrial branches," varying from 23° to 38° in length, into which the zodiac, "the yellow road," was divided; these were given the names of the twelve branches or the animals representing them, namely, rat, ox, tiger, hare, dragon, snake, horse, sheep, monkey, cock, dog, and bear.

The Ten Celestial Stems were combined with the Twelve Terrestrial Branches, so as to form groups of double characters. Had, let us say, "wood-elder-brother" been prefixed to "rat," then "wood-younger-brother" to "rat," and so on through the series regularly, a cycle of 120 (10 x 12) combinations would have been



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achieved very simply. But inasmuch as each series is supposed to be progressing, there is no regularity, and even those who were brought up in association with this system have the utmost difficulty in determining a date in the past.

Turning now to the Aztec calendar, which, although based upon the cycle of fifty-two years, is not absolutely dissimilar to the Chinese sexagenary cycle, we find that the Mexican calendar depended on the combination of numbers with picture-signs, of which latter the principal were the rabbit, reed, flint, house. A very little attentive study will make the similarity quite conspicuous.

"This method is highly artificial, and the re-appearance of its principle in the Mexican and Central American calendar is suggestive of importation from Asia. Humboldt also discussed the Mexican doctrine of four ages of the world belonging to water, earth, air, and fire, and ending respectively by deluge, earthquake, tempest, and conflagration. The resemblance of this to some versions of the Hindu doctrine of the four ages or *yuga* is hardly to be accounted for except on the hypothesis that the Mexican theology contains ideas learnt from Asiatics." [E. B. Tylor.]

In counting, the Aztecs reckoned by scores, their numbers following the vigesimal system of notation. Up to one score the numbers were indicated by dots or small circles without special order. A score was indicated by a flag, and after that the groups were in multiples of twenty. A score of scores, 400, was shown by a feather; a score of scores of scores, 8000, by a money-pouch. But these symbols might be abbreviated in combinations and shown in halves or even quarters, "so that 534 might be shown by one feather, one-quarter of a feather, one flag, one-half of a flag, and four dots."

Mexican legends tell that it was the wise and good teacher, Quetzalcoatl, who showed the Toltecs how to accomplish the artistic work of the smiths who wrought the precious metals. But here, it must be noted that among the later Nahuatl peoples, the Aztecs especially, the word *toltecātl* came to signify an artist or a skilled craftsman.

The Toltec people were nearly wiped out of existence in the eleventh century by a succession of droughts and the consequent famine and pestilence. A very few of the survivors remained in the valley of Anahuac, because almost the whole nation went south, into the present Yucatan and Guatemala, in which countries their name was long continued in local records. When, much later, the Aztecs had established their supremacy in Mexico and were in need of clever artists and artisans, they sent *south* for them.

Accepting or rejecting, as may be, the theory that the ancient Mexicans believed in a supreme deity, there were certain of their gods who stood out conspicuously as endowed with attributes not credited to the commoner members of the pantheon, e.g., Tloque Nahuaque, "he who is all in himself," or Ipainemoan, "he by whom we live," who had no image, and who was propitiated with incense and flowers, not by bloody human or animal sacrifices.

There was, too, a rival deity, Tlacatecolotl, an evil god, a mysterious being not easily reconciled with ideas conforming to native development. But all of these were too spiritual, too metaphysical, to be readily comprehended by the common people, who demanded something which their intelligence could grasp; and that, of course, meant something which could be presented to their sense of sight as an idol.

By the masses, then, Tezcatlipoca was exalted to the highest place in the pantheon. When the festival in honour of all the gods was held, his "footsteps were expected to appear in the flour strown to receive this sign of their coming. He was plainly an ancient deity of the race, for attributes of many kinds were crowded together in him, and he was prayed to in interminable formulas for help in war, for health and fortune, to deliver the nation from a wicked king, or to give pardon and strength to the penitent who had confessed his sins and been purified by washing."

Between Quetzalcoatl and Tezcatlipoca, there had long been rivalry and one of the most entertaining Aztec myths tells how these two played a famous game of ball, upon the result of which hung prestige. Although Quetzalcoatl is said to have won, or, at any rate, to have been in a fair way to win, he was very tired, and then the tricky Tezcatlipoca, assuming the disguise of a white-headed, decrepit old sorcerer, persuaded his rival to drink the magic *pulque*. This wrought the good deity's utter discomfiture. Half-crazed by the strange, potent, and mischievous liquor, he roamed away from the plains of Anahuac until he reached the seacoast. Then he boarded a small vessel and sailed away; but did he arrive at the Gulf of Mexico or the shores of the Pacific? It does not matter, and there are equally emphatic and plausible tales to support both sides.

If confirmation were needed to support the statement that the Mexicans were Nature-worshippers (in part, at least, if not so entirely as, let us say, the Japanese), it would be found in the dignity ascribed to Tona-tiuh and Metzli, the personifications of the Sun and the Moon. The interested visitor to the great central plateau of Mexico may even yet see the huge pyramids

built of sun-dried bricks at Teotihuacan. The seemingly crude and unstable material has stood the stress of the weather remarkably, and the pyramids stand "with their sides oriented to the four quarters, an evidence of the importance of their worship."

There are a great many legends dealing with Huitzilopochtli, or Mexitli, the Aztec god of war. One tells of his supernatural conception in the ancient Tollan land. Another represents him as having been a puissant warrior who was deified after his death. Without commenting upon the rather suspicious familiarity of that first tale, we may say that the second makes the Mexican Mars singularly like the Japanese congener, Hachiman. This latter was born to Empress Jingo, who reigned 201 to 269 A.D. This empress was the consort of Emperor Chuai; and while her existence cannot be positively denied, yet anything which purports to be Japanese history at that early date is always open to suspicion.

It is not actually claimed that the son was miraculously conceived, but it is solemnly declared in Japanese annals that his mother delayed his birth for three years, after his conception, by the virtue of a magic stone which she always carried in the fold of her broad girdle. During that long pregnancy Jingo was leading her troops, Amazon-like, because of the sudden demise of the emperor, in an invasion of Korea. Upon her return, she removed the magic stone and forthwith was delivered of a son; and when the mother died, this remarkable offspring succeeded to the throne as Emperor Ojin, reigning from 270 to 310 A.D.

There are no remarkable warlike exploits recounted of this monarch and doubtless his apotheosis was intended as a compliment to his still more remarkable mother, for it never could have occurred to the

Japanese to make Jingo their Minerva. Some students of Japanese history and legend consider that Ojin's deification was due to the fact that the powerful and warlike Minamoto family made him their patron saint.

But the parallel between the Mexican Huitzilopochtli and the Japanese Hachiman does not continue into the worship offered these respective deities. To the credit of the Japanese be it said that there never were any human beings sacrificed on Hachiman's altars, as in ancient Mexico the wretched captives were bent backward over the war-god's green stone sacrificial block so "that the priest might more easily slash open the breast with his obsidian knife, tear out the heart and hold it up before the god, while the captor and his friends were waiting below for the carcase to be tumbled down the steps for them to carry home to be cooked for the feast of victory." .

In art Hachiman is represented as rather a fierce creature, bristling with the primitive weapons of his time, and he is popular with the boys, but he is not made to appear remarkably repulsive. Whereas Huitzilopochtli's "idol remains in Mexico, a huge block of basalt on which is sculptured on one side his hideous personage, adorned with the humming-bird feathers on the left hand, which signify his name; while the not less frightful war-goddess Teoyaomiqui, or 'divine-war-death,' occupies the other side."

Were we able entirely to dissociate Spanish influence from the record of Nahua ritual and prayer which has been handed down to us by both European and native chroniclers, we should be more disposed than we are to credit the prehistoric Mexicans with a good deal of religious fervour and not a little pathos. But when we find an allusion to sheep — in a sense denoted by the

phrase "all we like sheep have gone astray" — it tends to cast discredit upon the whole of this literature; for the sheep was unknown to the natives of Mexico until the Europeans made them acquainted with it.

At the great annual festival of Tezcatlipoca, who has already been mentioned, the handsomest and noblest captive of the year was made to impersonate the god. He wore a magnificent, embroidered mantle, was crowned with feathers and flowers, and attended by a retinue suitable for a king. Four damsels were given to him as wives during the last month of his life, and these were treated as goddesses. "On the last day wives and pages escorted him to the little temple of Tlacochcalco, where he mounted the stairs, breaking an earthenware flute against each step; this was a symbolic farewell to the joys of the world, for as he reached the top he was seized by the priests, his heart torn out and held up to the sun, his head spitted on the *tzompantli* (the place where skulls of victims by tens of thousands were skewered on cross-sticks or built into towers), and his body eaten as sacred food, the people drawing from his fate the moral lesson that riches and pleasure may turn into poverty and sorrow."

All of these Aztec ceremonies were attended by the less revolting pleasures of the ordinary festival. There were numerous grotesque dances by maskers, sham fights, and all manner of children's games. But the typical religious function was simply a horrible butchery followed by a cannibal feast. Some of the fights arranged for the gratification of the spectators were far from being a "sham" for one of the contestants. A captive was given a wooden sword and then compelled to fight with a well-equipped, armoured gladiator.

After we have granted cheerfully that there was good

reason for the Spaniards' amazement at the degree and character of the culture and civilisation which they found on their arrival in Mexico, we must not overlook the fact that certainly some of the awful, bloodthirsty disposition which ruled the natives still survived. Only a mere suggestion of what the religious orgies were in the Mexico of ancient days has been attempted here. Readers of works that give greater details than we can, will be convinced that this is true; and whatever may have been the faults of the Spaniards, it must be admitted that to have done even a little to put a stop to such butchery of human beings is something which deserves praise.

CHAPTER IV

THE COMING OF THE SPANIARDS

IT can hardly be necessary to state that this chapter will be, in the main, a compilation from Prescott's great work, "The Conquest of Mexico." After this we must pass into the period of at least semi-independence, which the native Mexicans and the goodly number of dissatisfied Europeans achieved after they had thrown off the Spanish rule. The rigid, yet never dull, history of Prescott is relieved somewhat by the lightness that such a writer as Lew Wallace injects into his remarkable novel "The Fair God."

As has already been stated, when Quetzalcoatl, after incurring the displeasure of a superior deity, or when he was discomfited by Tezcatlipoca, left Tenochtitlan (now Mexico City), and went to the coast, he is alleged to have declared he would return, and if he did not wreak his vengeance upon the people for their lack of allegiance to himself, he would certainly assume the government of the entire land.

Little by little, however, the loyalty of the Aztecs towards Quetzalcoatl seems to have waned until, in the sixteenth century, his great temple that stood near the Tlateloco, the large market-place in the western part of the capital, was well-nigh deserted. This spot will always be infamous, for it was probably here, although writers are not in full accord, some saying the deed was done in the plaza of Tezcuco, that the first archbishop of Mexico, Don Juan de Zumarraga, collected the pic-

ture-writings from every quarter, especially from Tezcuco, which was the most cultivated city of Anahuac and the great depository of the national archives. Zumarraga caused these priceless records to be piled up in a mountain heap, as it is called by the Spanish writers themselves, and then burned them. This act of vandalism was perpetuated simply because, not being at once intelligible to the conquerors, the strange, unknown characters excited suspicion. They were looked upon as magic scrolls; and were regarded in the same light with the idols and temples, as the symbols of a pestilent superstition, which must be exterminated.* Prescott adds that Zumarraga's "greater countryman, Archbishop Ximenes, had celebrated a similar *auto-da-fe* of Arabic manuscripts, in Granada, some twenty years before. Never did fanaticism achieve two more signal triumphs, than by the annihilation of so many curious monuments of human ingenuity and learning."

Montezuma II. had caused another and a greater temple to be erected, wherein he had installed a new image for the people to worship; and, as Wallace says, "as if a king could better make a good custom, the people abandoned the old ones to desuetude." In that old, deserted temple, in the month of March, 1519, dwelt an aged, feeble, white-haired, white-bearded old priest, a *paba* to whom Wallace gives the name of Mualox.†

The only permanent residents of Quetzalcoatl's temple, save a few slaves, were Mualox and a young girl, a mere child, whom with her mother the *paba* had bought in the slave-market of Tenochtitlan, when Tecetl, for that

* See "Conquest of Mexico," Book I, chap. IV.

† If I seem to accept too much of fiction, it must be remembered that practically all the essentials of Wallace's "The Fair God" were confirmed by Spanish investigators. J. K. G.

was the girl's name, was a baby at her mother's breast. The mother is supposed to have died very soon, and Mualox had kept the child absolutely withdrawn from the world and all human companions except himself. She was immured, so to speak, in marvellous apartments, deep down in the bowels of the earth, that stretched out far under the waters of the lake.

Yet by his skill, which bordered closely upon magic, even in such a seemingly impossible place, Mualox had surrounded Tecetl with gardens, so that young plants and trees, flowers and fruits were familiar to her all the time, while birds charmed with their songs or gratified her eyes with their beauty.

The old *paba* is described as exercising potent hypnotic influence over the girl, and one day in that memorable spring of the year 1519, she tells him that she sees strange things like huge white-winged birds coming over great waters towards Anahuac. On these marvellous birds there were even stranger beings who looked like Mualox himself, yet were dazzling in their splendour. They had fair faces and brown hair. Mualox is convinced that at last the legend of Quetzalcoatl's return is to be transformed into reality, and his god is coming to punish the Aztecs for their neglect in the past and their disloyalty in the present. This conviction he attempts to impart to Montezuma, who is, however, somewhat sceptical although manifestly perturbed by the prophecy.

Cortés' squadron reached the mouth of the Tabasco River on March 12, 1519, and within less than two days fleet runners brought the information to the capital. Thus was Mualox's prophecy confirmed and Montezuma's perturbation increased. This coming of the Spaniards was not the first information concerning Europeans that reached the ears of the people of Ana-



THE AZTEC VICTORY STONE, CUERNAVACA

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huac and Central America. It is reasonably certain that very soon after the year 1514 the Aztecs had heard of Francisco Hernandez de Cordova's expedition to Nicaragua; and in 1518 they certainly had some intercourse with the company of Juan de Grijalva, who left Santiago de Cuba on April 8, 1518, discovered Mexico, obtained a good deal of gold by trading with the Indians, and learned considerable about the rich Aztec kingdom in the interior. Of these visits by Europeans, Wallace makes Montezuma to say, "as you know, strangers have twice before been upon our coasts in such canoes, and with such arms; and in both instances they sought gold, and getting it they departed."

But Montezuma's expression of confidence, as he spoke to his counsellors, was not sincere, and it is manifest that, from the very first confirmation by his official messengers of the priests' prophecies, he felt that these newcomers were Children of the Sun, though probably not really gods, even if the prowess of the Spaniards, whom many of the natives, priests and laymen, thought invincible, caused them to be considered "white gods." With these feelings animating the ruler, most of his advisers, and many of his generals, it is almost superfluous to add that Cortés' conquest was assured before it had been well begun.

On the tenth of February, 1519, Cortés' little squadron got under way from Havana (we omit all account of the various personal and official discouragements that had been thrown across his path prior to that date) and sailed for Cabo San Antonio, the extreme western point of the island of Cuba, which had been appointed as the place of rendezvous. When all arrived, there were eleven vessels. Cortés' flagship was the largest and it was but one hundred tons burden. The next three in

size were from seventy to eighty tons; and the rest were small caravels or open brigantines, but the latter were not the kind of seaworthy vessel which satisfies the present definition of the word. The chief pilot, or navigator, was Antonio de Alaminos, a veteran and competent officer who had acted as pilot to Columbus in his fourth and last voyage (when the great discoverer first actually saw the mainland which he believed until his death was the continent of Asia), and to Cordova and Grijalva in their expeditions which have been mentioned.

When Cortés mustered his forces, he found he had one hundred and ten seamen, five hundred and fifty-three soldiers, including thirty-two crossbowmen and thirteen arquebusiers.* There were, besides, two hundred Indian supernumeraries and a few native women for servants. His armament comprised ten heavy guns, and four lighter pieces called falconets, and he had a goodly supply of ammunition. Authorities differ as to this complement; some give the number of soldiers as only four hundred, others say six hundred. Prescott adopts "the estimates of Bernal Diaz, who, in his long service, seems to have become intimately acquainted with every one of his comrades, their persons, and private history."

There were, besides the human beings, sixteen horses in the expedition, and while this seems an almost ludicrously insignificant number for such an enterprise, it must be remembered that these animals were not easily procured in that part of the world early in the sixteenth century. It was exceedingly difficult and most inconvenient to carry them across the ocean in the small vessels of those days, and therefore they were almost incredibly dear in the West Indies. The sixteen in

* See Cent. Dict. definition of *harquebuse*.

Cortés' expedition are alleged to have cost from four hundred to five hundred *pesos de oro* each, and that would be the equivalent of about two thousand dollars apiece to-day. "But Cortés rightfully estimated the importance of cavalry, however small in number, both for their actual service in the field, and for striking terror into the natives. With so paltry a force did he enter on a Conquest which even his stout heart must have shrunk from attempting with such means, had he foreseen half its real difficulties."

A severe storm the first night after leaving Cabo San Antonio scattered the fleet, dismasted or seriously damaged several of the vessels, and drove them all much south of their purposed destination, the promontory of Yucatan. They came together again at the island of Cozumel. Cortés' flagship, which had lingered behind to convoy a disabled vessel, was the last to arrive.

If the fact that Cortés was well informed about internal conditions in Anahuac is not conclusively demonstrated, it is strongly indicated by his actions. Upon his ability to take advantage of those disorders to gain for himself needed allies, he depended very much for the success of his enterprise. The Spaniards contended that they had the right to appropriate all lands of the "heathen savages" and annex them to the dominions of their ruler.* This imputation of savagery has always been vehemently, and properly, resented by the Mexican (native) historians.

Looking back over nearly four hundred years, we find it difficult morally to justify the Conquest of Mexico, and yet we must, in fairness, give to the conquerors what little credit is their due. Cortés showed a measure of wisdom and policy at the first encounter with the

* See the famous Papal Bulls.

natives. When he reached Cozumel, he learnt that one of his captains, Pedro de Alvarado, had entered the temples and stripped them of their ornaments and all things of value. Alvarado's violent conduct had so terrified the simple people that they fled into the interior of the island.

Cortés was exceedingly angry, for the act of his subordinate was so contrary to the course he had determined upon. He reprimanded the captain publicly, made a careful explanation to the prisoners whom Alvarado had seized, gave them many presents, and sent them to explain matters to their friends. This humane policy succeeded; the natives returned and amicable relations were established.

On the fourth of March, 1519, Cortés sailed from Cozumel, doubled Cape Catoche, the extreme point of Yucatan, and reached Tabasco River, where he first met with serious and hostile opposition; but the Spaniards were successful because of their arms. After capturing the town of Tabasco, he formally took possession for the crown of Castile. He was much perturbed, however, by the desertion of his interpreter, Melchorejo, who had been until now his only means of communicating with the natives.

Cortés returned to his fleet and sailed to San Juan de Ulua (an island off the coast opposite Vera Cruz). Here Doña Marina enters the story. She was a Mexican, of good birth, spoke the Tabascan language and could carry on a conversation with Jeronimo de Aguilar, who, in turn, rendered it into Spanish. This Aguilar, a native of Ecija, in old Spain, had been regularly educated for the Church. He was sent to the colony of Darien, and on a voyage from that place back towards Hispaniola (that is Haiti) in 1511, had been wrecked on the coast of

Yucatan. He was preserved from the sacrifice by the cannibal natives, which was the fate of all his companions, and escaped into the interior. There he had been protected by a chief and attained a position of rank and importance. Eventually he was permitted to leave his native master, and he reached Cozumel just in time to meet Cortés' fleet. His services to the Captain-General were invaluable.

Cortés, we know, appreciating at their full value the services Doña Marina could render, first made her his interpreter, then his secretary, and at last, won by her personal charms, took her to be his mistress. "She had a son by him, Don Martin Cortés, *comendador* of the Military Order of St. James, less distinguished by his birth than his unmerited persecutions." Cortés was known to the Aztecs by Marina's alternative name, Malinche.

On April 21, 1519, Good Friday, Cortés landed on the mainland, with all his forces, on the very spot where now stands the city of Vera Cruz. He established himself here with somewhat of permanency; and much to his surprise, yet altogether to his gratification, he received great assistance from the natives, who flocked to the place in crowds to see the wonderful strangers. Teuhtlile, the governor of the province, came to meet Cortés on Easter Day. On this occasion, the Spanish leader rather failed in his usual policy by preferring a somewhat imperious demand that he be given an interview with the "emperor," Montezuma. Teuhtlile's anger at this presumption was subsequently placated in a measure, and he presented the gifts he had brought for the Spanish general. He consented to receive those intended for Montezuma, to forward them to the capital, and to make known Cortés' request for an audience.

The Aztec governor was accompanied by an artist

who made sketches of the Spaniards, in order that Montezuma might gain through his eyes a better idea of what the strangers were like, than was possible from any verbal description. It is rather interesting to note here that a native artist, probably the same one, gave the Spaniards a portrait of one of the native military officers, who bore such a striking resemblance to the Captain-General that he was dubbed "The Mexican Cortés."

Montezuma, as soon as he learned of Cortés' arrival upon the coast of his domains, called a meeting of his counsellors to ask their opinions as to the attitude to be assumed towards the strangers. The officials differed widely in the advice given, and the king determined upon a half-way course. He sent magnificent gifts to the Spaniards; he gave command that they should be physically well cared for; but he forbade them to come to his capital. The gifts merely stimulated the cupidity of the Spaniards; the forbiddance met with derision.

Dissatisfaction had broken out in the Spanish camp; but Cortés cleverly allayed this by ordering his entire force to prepare to return to Cuba, as if he were going to abandon his enterprise. As he expected, the men demurred and insisted upon planting a colony. Cortés received the demand with the embarrassed manner of one by whom it was altogether unexpected. After a little affectation of delay, he consented to build a new city, *Villa Rica de Vera Cruz*, "The Rich Town of the True Cross." He even went so far in his farce as to resign his office of Captain-General, "which indeed," he said, "had necessarily expired, since the authority of the governor was now superseded by that of the magistracy of *Villa Rica de Vera Cruz*." The council, of course, made him Captain-General and Chief Justice of the colony, and the Conquest was actively prosecuted.

Having now reached the time when the coming of the Spaniards may be looked upon as an established fact, we must pass rapidly over the march to Cempoalla, in which city began the negotiations that brought the native allies upon whom Cortés had counted. From Cempoalla the Spaniards went to Chiahuitztlā. Here a rather disagreeable acquaintance was made with some Aztec lords who had been sent by Montezuma to receive tribute. But Cortés played a trick upon the kindly Cempoallan chief and citizens; although his artifice in first persuading the governor to seize the Aztecs, and then in effecting their release, has not wanted its panegyrist among the native historians. It certainly had all the effect intended on the trembling Montezuma. The Totonacs were enrolled under the protection of Spain.

The Spaniards' audacity in inducing the Cempoallans to imprison the royal tribute collectors filled the whole city of Tenochtitlan with indignation; but when those officials arrived in person and reported how courteously Cortés had treated them, Montezuma's anger was dissipated. Although the site of this city, Cempoalla, is not now to be identified positively, it was no doubt close to the coast and back of the new city, Villa Rica de Vera Cruz.

Cortés now determined upon a most daring experiment, which was to destroy his fleet without letting his army know what he was doing. This was for the purpose of depriving the Spaniards of means of easy return to Cuba and their friends. He assumed that this "cutting away of bridges" would make them even more vigorous than they had been in their determination to conquer Mexico. An inkling of what he was about to do having come to the soldiers, Cortés was too politic

not to seem to take the men into his confidence, and by his harangue, in which he assumed a tone of persuasion rather than of authority, he represented how much greater his own risk was than that of any other member of the expedition.

He reported that a survey had shown conclusively that all the vessels, with one possible exception, were absolutely unseaworthy because of rot and worms, and he wound up thus: "As for me, I have chosen my part. I will remain here while there is one to bear me company. If there be any so craven as to shrink from sharing the dangers of our glorious enterprise, let them go home, in God's name. There is still one vessel left. Let them take that and return to Cuba. They can tell there how they have deserted their commander and their comrades, and patiently wait till we return loaded with the spoils of the Aztecs." Cortés was entirely successful; and now the universal cry was "To Mexico!"

The Spaniards then climbed to the Tableland. They marched into the territory of the Tlascalans, who had for years maintained at least a semblance of independence from the Tenochtitlans, and who had secured as allies the wild and warlike Othomis. After many desperate and bloody engagements, in number sufficient to dignify the episode with the title of war, the Tlascalans were so far overcome as to cease to offer resistance to the forward march of the Spaniards.

News of this victory for "the men of destiny" having been brought to Montezuma, he sent an embassy to Cortés, who, after some futile fencing in diplomacy, offered to pay tribute in their master's name to the Castilian sovereign, provided the Spaniards would give up their plan of marching to Tenochtitlan. As Prescott well says, this was a grave error; for it displayed the

VIEW OF TEXCOCO AND LAKE FROM A HILL, TETZCOTZINGO



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rich casket with one hand, which Montezuma was unable to defend with the other. Cortés' reply was just what was to have been expected; and he concluded the message he sent by the ambassadors by saying that while he could not make adequate return for the Aztec monarch's munificence, "he trusted to repay him at some future day, *with good works*."

The Spaniards took possession of the city of Tlascala, where a somewhat lengthy stay was made. In part this was devoted to recuperation and festivities; in part to the propaganda of the Christian faith, although Father Olmeda, the leading prelate, deprecated all forced conversions. Another embassy from Montezuma arrived; this time inviting the Spaniards to his capital and asking them to take the route by way of Cholula. This suggestion the Tlascalans disapproved strongly, rightly suspecting treachery, and their arguments had much weight with Cortés, yet he decided to march to Cholula. He entered that city at the head of his army, attended by no other Indians than those from Cempoalla, and a handful of Tlascalans to take charge of the baggage.

Promptly after establishing themselves in Cholula, signs of a conspiracy were detected, the full details of which Doña Marina secured, by her artfulness and dissimulation, from the wife of a powerful Cholulan chief. The result was a fearful massacre of the inhabitants, something that has left a dark stain on the memory of the Conquerors. Its moral effect was tremendous and Prescott's reflections on the slaughter are to be commended. Montezuma's effort to relieve himself from all responsibility for the Cholulan conspiracy was the basest pusillanimity and it effectually sealed his fate.

Quiet having been restored at Cholula, the Spaniards marched towards Tenochtitlan. On the way, in order to

show the natives the Europeans' contempt for their superstitions, the great volcano of Popocatepetl, a forbidden spot, was ascended by one of Cortés' captains. It was rather a difficult undertaking, but having been accomplished without dire results, it tended to enhance the Aztecs' respect for these doughty strangers, while it somewhat shook their confidence in the power of their own gods.

The admiration of the Spaniards for the beautiful scenery of the great valley of Central Mexico and the "Venice of the Aztecs," was speedily affected by the dubious sensations produced by the evidences of a civilisation and progress so greatly superior to anything they had yet encountered. The timid ones shrank from a contest so unequal and demanded, as they had done on previous occasions, to be led back to Vera Cruz. Cortés had no such feelings. His avarice was sharpened by the display of these most tempting spoils, and by argument, entreaty, and threat he compelled the army to advance.

Poor vacillating Montezuma was now a prey to the most dismal apprehensions. In despair, he shut himself up in his palace, refused food, and sought relief in prayers and sacrifice. We may be very sure that remorse for seeming neglect in propitiating Quetzalcoatl had potent influence upon his oblations.

His counsellors were divided in opinion. Some advocated courteous reception of the strangers as ambassadors of a puissant foreign prince. Others, among whom was Cuitlahua, Montezuma's brother, urged armed resistance. But the king found it impossible to rally his spirits for this struggle; he exclaimed: "Of what avail is resistance, when the gods have declared themselves against us! Yet I mourn most for the old and the in-

firm, the women and the children, too feeble to fight or to fly. For myself and the brave men around me, we must bare our breasts to the storm, and meet it as best we may!"

The Spaniards advanced to the town of Amaquemaca; then to Ajatzinco, where they were requested to await the arrival of the lord of Tezcuco, who would come, as the representative of Montezuma, to bid the strangers welcome to his capital. Resuming their march, the invaders passed along the southern border of Lake Chalco, and then, leaving the mainland, they came to the great causeway which, for four or five miles, separated Lake Chalco from Lake Xochicalco to the west. It was a solid structure of stone blocks laid with lime. It was wide enough for eight horsemen to ride abreast, and it amazed the Spaniards as being one of the most remarkable works they had seen in the country.

Midway of the causeway, the invading army halted at the town of Cuitlahuac for refreshment, and then went along the narrow neck of land dividing the waters of Chalco from Lake Tezcucan. Then they entered Iztapalapan, the royal residence town governed by Cuitlahua. He, attended by the lords of neighbouring cities, gave welcome to Cortés, who took up his quarters for the night.

On the 8th of November, 1519, the actual entry into the city of Tenochtitlan was made. A mile and a half from the capital, at Fort Xoloc, memorable in later days as the position occupied by Cortés in the famous siege of Mexico, the Spaniards halted to meet several hundred Aztec chiefs, who came to announce the approach of Montezuma, and to welcome the strangers to the capital.

When the monarch's personal train had reached a convenient place, it halted and Montezuma descended

from his palanquin. He then came forward, leaning on the arms of the lords of Tezcuco and Iztapalapan. Cortés dismounted, threw his reins to a page, and, surrounded by a few of his captains, advanced to meet Montezuma. After exchange of civilities, in which the Spaniard was on the point of profaning the sacred person of the Aztec monarch by embracing him, but was restrained by the attendant lords, Montezuma appointed his brother to conduct the Spaniards to their quarters in the capital. Re-entering his palanquin, the king was borne off amidst prostrate, silent crowds, in the same state in which he had arrived. There was something in the deportment of the Aztec populace on such occasions, which reminds us strangely of the behaviour of the Japanese in former times. The Spaniards quickly followed Montezuma's train; and with colours flying and the military band playing, they soon made their entrance into the southern section of Tenochtitlan.

This does not complete the Conquest of Mexico; for the seemingly friendly reception soon was followed by conditions that were filled with danger to the Spaniards. Yet the record is too interesting to be condensed into the available space, and it is too long to be inserted in full. Each may read for himself of the signs of rebellion, of the imprisonment of Montezuma, of his being forced to swear allegiance to Spain, of the discontent among the Aztecs, of the troubles amongst the Spaniards, of their expulsion from Tenochtitlan and the horrors of *La Noche Triste*, of their return with reinforcements, and all the other fateful events until the submission of rulers and people of Mexico to Spain's dominion in 1522.

CHAPTER V

INDEPENDENCE

MEXICAN historians are agreed in saying that the Spanish rule in their country lasted exactly three centuries, from 1521 to 1821. The first date may not be accepted by all, although one year is of small moment; and the second is historical, for, by the treaty of Aquala, Mexico was declared independent on the 23rd of August, 1821, although Agustin de Iturbide was not proclaimed emperor until May 18th, 1822, and crowned July 21st of that year, after Spain had declined to let one of the Spanish Bourbon princes accept the honour.

During all these three hundred years, there were three great, privileged classes who ruled Mexico with iron hands. The common people of native descent, as well as most of those of mixed blood, were not considered in any way to have rights of self-government or social privileges of any kind. The true natives were simply the hewers of wood and the drawers of water, whose labour produced the wealth which filled the pockets of the rulers or overflowed into the royal coffers at Madrid.

In those three privileged classes, precedence was given to the clergy, as was an almost invariable rule at that period throughout Spanish dominions. These clergy, by using mental and spiritual pressure, had obtained bequests from persons who were at the point of death; and by these and various other devices had accumulated enormous estates. They owned, directly or by means of mortgages so drawn as to make it impossible ever to

extinguish them, more than two-thirds of all real property. Naturally, too, the Church had secured control of practically all the lucrative financial business.

It was not through their great wealth alone that the clergy held their tremendous power, although that was quite sufficiently potent; but they added much to their influence, both for good and evil, because of their education. Although, as a matter of fact, the majority of the priests — even those rather well up in rank — really had but little book-learning, they knew a great deal more than did the other classes, and the majority of the common people (we might say the whole of them) were purposely kept in a shocking state of ignorance.

The prelates were so powerful during the whole of the Spanish rule that they did not hesitate to defy the civil authorities. A viceroy once attempted to assert his authority over the archbishop of Mexico City, who had defiantly opposed him in his official and lawful acts. The viceroy issued an order of arrest, intending to send the archbishop a civil prisoner to Spain. The arrest was duly made, but when it became known that the high-rank Church dignitary was being taken to Vera Cruz for exile, a violent uproar broke out in the capital: the archbishop was speedily brought back and reinstated in office, while the viceroy was compelled to leave the country.

The Spanish Colonial Government in Mexico was an auto-theocratic one; the civil administration (representing the aristocrats) and the ecclesiastical administration being as closely united as possible, with preponderance of power always with the clergy. Of the sixty-two viceroys who ruled Mexico during the three hundred years of the Spanish power, ten, or more than seventeen per centum, were also archbishops of Mexico

City, the highest ecclesiastical dignitary in the colony. In fact, the archbishop of the capital was *ex-officio* viceroy; because, whenever the civil governor died, or was recalled from Madrid and left the colony before his successor arrived, the archbishop almost invariably assumed the duties of the civil office.

The second of the privileged classes were the Spaniards by birth. These formed a kind of aristocracy extremely exclusive, and a few of them held titles of Spanish nobility. As they were the only class who held offices of trust, responsibility, dignity (outside the Church), or emolument, they completely monopolised the profitable business (often being the representatives of ecclesiastical proprietors), and they were the wealthy lay class. These "pure Spaniards," as they delighted to call themselves, were so ridiculously jealous of "native" Mexicans, that even the children born in Mexico to Spaniards by a Mexican mother were not considered to be their equals.

These half-castes were called (rather loosely, we now think) creoles. They were deemed to have no legal or social rights whatever, and were not permitted to fill any public office or to hold any position of importance. Very few Spanish women went to Mexico in the days of Spanish rule. The Castilian men generally went there while yet quite young. They grew up in the colony, and married Mexican women, occasionally pure-blooded Indians, the daughters of influential *caciques*, although, as a rule, they took for wives the daughters of Spaniards by Mexican wives. From these marriages came the creoles, now the important class of native-born Mexicans.

The third of those former privileged classes was the army. The Spanish army was then comparatively small; the burden of provincial patrol, checking local

insurrection, and similar duties, being put upon the *caciques* and their followers. Yet this little Spanish army was a very important social element in the colony. Native-born Mexicans, even the creoles, held none but subordinate positions, and rarely were such promoted to the rank of commissioned officer; for the pure *Hidalgos* resented this intrusion upon their exclusiveness.

All conditions carefully considered, it was but natural for these three privileged classes to be enthusiastic supporters of Spanish rule. Under it alone they existed or could exist, because to it they owed their wealth and influence. A change would, therefore, seriously endanger their power, if it did not absolutely destroy it. Although the higher clergy were, of course, absolutely loyal to Spain and staunch supporters of Spanish rule, there were some Mexican-born priests in the lower ranks of the clergy, for the Church was practically the only career open to natives. These latter had, naturally, some feelings of patriotism, and could foresee the benefits that might accrue from that change for which they longed.

During Spain's long rule in Mexico, there is not much to be said that redounds to her credit. The colony was vigorously exploited for the benefit of the Mother Country. Its wealth was drained as much as possible to line the pockets of the resident Spaniards or to replenish the perpetually leaking treasure-chests of the Home Government. Had but a tithe of the immense sums that poured into Spain from her various over-seas possessions been withheld from the rapacity of Court favourites and all manner of leeches, that country would be to-day the richest in the world, instead of being what it perhaps is: the poorest!

Yet it is surprising to find some of the Mexican historians condoning Spain's selfishness and greed. These

say, and of course it is true even if it is *not* the whole truth, that Spain gave to Mexico all she had: her religion, her language, her laws, her civilisation, her genius. They add that all of this was not for the exclusive benefit of her subjects of Spanish blood. The Madrid Government evinced a certain kindly feeling towards the natives, and the conquered race shared the advantages that the conqueror brought; the result being the production of many Mexicans of note, lawyers, priests, scientists, literati. But the administrators of what the Madrid Government designed to confer, were not often conspicuous for their altruism. The most generous of non-Spanish students cannot wonder that the patience of the conquered Mexicans eventually ceased to be a virtue.

Bearing in mind the general character of the Nahua peoples, whether fierce and treacherous Aztecs or warlike and hardy Othomis, it is surprising that the attitude of the really brave masses should have been one of submission to the cruel foreign masters, instead of active resistance to ills to which they had never been normally accustomed. Yet they submitted for the three hundred years from the death of Guatemozin, the last of the Aztec rulers, in 1521, to the year 1821, when the last Spanish viceroy, Don Juan O'Donojú, surrendered the capital and left Mexico in the hands of her own people.

Professor A. H. Keane was quite correct in saying that Mexico was looked upon by the Spanish Government merely as a vast metalliferous region, to be jealously guarded against foreign intrusion and worked exclusively for the benefit of the crown. The natives were evangelised chiefly for the purpose of being employed as slaves above or below the surface of the ground, and therefore the system of *repartimientos*, or distribution of

the natives on plantations or in mines, was introduced from the West Indies. The system was fatal in Cuba and Haiti; but climatic conditions and greater vitality prevented such fatality in Mexico. In the latter country the contact and partial fusion of a lower and a higher culture worked for the benefit of the lower, and from that fusion grew the spirit which asserted itself in 1810; and it produced some individuals who displayed remarkable qualities as organisers of opposition to Spanish rule, and as leaders of their fellow-countrymen in asserting their rights.

Americans must not decline all responsibility for the revolt of the Spanish colonies on this continent; because unquestionably the example which was set in 1776 was not overlooked by our southern neighbours. Even Spain herself was not entirely without furnishing a precedent, for there the people had rebelled against the Government that Napoleon had established in 1808, under his brother, Joseph Bonaparte, notwithstanding that it had the sanction of King Ferdinand VII., who had abdicated in favour of the French Emperor.

With all these reasons and causes operating, it was simply in the nature of events that the long smouldering fires of discontent should break out in open conflagration, and most of the Spanish-American colonies proclaimed their independence in 1810. In Mexico, this was done on September 16, 1810, at Dolores, an Indian village in the State of Guanajuato, northwest of Mexico City, by Miguel Hidalgo y Costilla, the venerable curate of the place. With the priest there co-operated Captains Allende, Aldama, and Abasolo, three subordinate officers of the Mexican militia, born in the country.

It was simply the uprising of a mob, and yet — had the priest-leader listened to the advice of his professional



A TYPICAL SILVER MILL

10. 10. 10. 10.
ABBOGLIO

associates, — he might have been successful. But, determined upon following out his own plan, he marched against the City of Mexico, and although he was once successful in battle, he was finally defeated. He was captured on May 21, 1811, and shot on the 31st of the following July.

Hidalgo was followed in revolt against the Spanish authorities, by another priest, a full-blooded Indian, José Maria Morelos, who possessed the traits of a great warrior. Without going into details of partial successes and repeated defeat until the end at Texmalaca, November 5, 1815, and his execution on December 22nd of that year, we content ourselves with saying that Morelos organised a regular government and convened a congress, which met at Chilpancingo, September 14, 1812. It was the first congress the Mexicans ever had and it declared independence on November 6th. Hidalgo had issued a decree abolishing slavery and Morelos' congress confirmed the abolition.

It will be noticed that these two champions of independence were clerics; and it may be inferred from that fact that the clergy was to some extent, at least, in sympathy with this movement. But this was by no means true. "The opposition of the clergy to independence from Spain, and the alarm with which they viewed the movement in that direction, were so great that its leaders were excommunicated by all the bishops of the country the moment the insurrection broke out. The Inquisition commenced proceedings against them, and several members of the higher clergy took up arms against the cause of independence. The bishop of Oaxaca, forgetting the teachings of the founder of his religion, organised his clergy into a regiment to fight against the insurgents; but the martial prelate had no

occasion to come into conflict with them, for he fled from the city, when Morelos approached it in 1812." *

Bravo, Mina, Guerrero, and Victoria continued the agitation for independence with much success, until Agustin de Iturbide (afterwards Agustin I., Emperor) appeared on the scene. This occurred about the time of serious changes in Europe, 1820, which greatly facilitated the movement towards independence. Viceroy O'Donojú accepted Iturbide's and others' "Plan de Iguala" and signed, at Cordoba, State of Vera Cruz, August 24, 1821, a treaty with Iturbide by which he recognised on behalf of the Spanish Government, the independence of Mexico, on condition that an empire be established in the country, calling to the throne a member of the Spanish family, under a thoroughly Roman Catholic régime, and forbidding the exercise of any other religion.

This *Plan de Iguala* seemed to be such a happy compromise between the revolutionists and the government, that all the commanding officers of the Spanish army accepted the "platform" and independence was accomplished almost without striking a blow.

It was not to be expected that this perpetuating of Spanish rule, under what was nothing more than the palpable euphemism of an independent monarchy, and the continued burden of a Roman Catholic hierarchy, would satisfy the zealous nationalists. In December, 1822, Don Antonio Lopez de Santa Ana headed a rebellion against Iturbide. The latter was defeated, captured, and banished, but he foolishly returned to Mexico on July 14, 1824, when he was promptly sentenced to death and was shot on the 19th of that same month.

* "Mexico and the United States." Matias Romero, Vol. I, Part II, Philosophy of the Mexican Revolutions.

After Iturbide's downfall, a republican form of government seemed to be inevitable. A National Congress to organise the country was convoked and met on November 7, 1823. On January 21, 1824, it issued the primary bases of a Federal Constitution, and on October 4th of that year the final Constitution was adopted and promulgated.

But this does not end the story of Mexico's internal political troubles. Authorities differ widely as to the number and character, as well as the territorial extent, of these disturbances. One says that as many as three hundred successful or abortive revolutions are recorded during the brief yet stormy life of Mexico's national independence. Another declares that between 1821 and 1868 the form of government was changed ten times, Federal Republic and Central Republic alternating at short intervals, and a Dictatorship intervening during 1853 to 1855. Over fifty persons are declared to have succeeded one another in those forty-seven years, as presidents, dictators, or emperors. Both emperors were condemned to be shot: Iturbide in 1824, Maximilian in 1867. According to some historians, at least three hundred *pronunciamientos* were issued. Don Romero gives forty-seven groups of persons or individuals who exercised ruling power between 1821 and 1884, inclusive. The last date brings us to the presidency of General Porfirio Diaz (although he promptly assumed the authority of a dictator). But with his exit, a year ago, recurred the normal state of confusion.

It seems better to refer here to French intervention in Mexico and the Maximilian episode, than to defer it to a later chapter wherein the events of the last one hundred years are to be discussed. In 1861 the party controlled by the prelates attempted to foment a fresh insurrection,

directed especially against the execution of the reform laws which contemplated sequestration of all Church property, the destruction of the clergy's political power, the complete separation of Church and State, the reduction of feast days from something like eighty or ninety in the year (besides Sundays), to two or three, the wearing of distinctive garb by all clerics and other religious orders, etc.

But it soon became evident that the Liberals had grown too strong for the Church party to overcome it with the means controlled at home. Ambassadors were, therefore, sent to Europe and intrigues carried on at some of the Courts to secure foreign intervention in Mexico.

Just at that time the Civil War broke out in the United States and this played into the hands of the Mexican Conservatives, for it increased their chances of gaining European intervention. The Emperor of France was apparently quite convinced that the Southern Confederacy would be successful in its effort to disrupt the Union. This much accomplished, he believed there would be little more heard of the Monroe Doctrine, and he considered the time opportune for gaining a foothold in Mexico. In this way he thought he could effectually promote the permanent division of the United States of America.

There was, besides, in the mind of Napoleon III., a wild scheme of establishing a French empire in America that should reach from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Exerting his influence with Powers that were then inimical to the Northern Government, he succeeded in forming an alliance between France, Great Britain, and Spain, by a treaty signed in London on October 1, 1861.

Maximilian was persuaded to go to Mexico and be

crowned Emperor; but Great Britain and Spain withdrew from the alliance before the war actually began. The first French army, under General Lorencez, was defeated at Puebla on May 5, 1862; but, after being considerably reinforced, it occupied both Puebla and Mexico City in 1863, and seemingly French intervention was established.

In 1865 when the Southern Confederacy had collapsed, Louis Napoleon at once realised that he could no longer continue the occupation of Mexico. The Mexicans could probably have driven out the French, but it would have taken at least a year or two of hard and expensive fighting; and it was undoubtedly the moral support of the United States which stimulated the departure of the French.

Maximilian knew perfectly well that he could not remain in Mexico after the French left and he prepared to depart as soon as he heard of the French Government's determination to withdraw. He was satisfied that his wife's effort to obtain in Europe a revocation of the order for withdrawal was fruitless. Unfortunately, he was a visionary person, without much force of character, and certainly he was not equal to the occasion.

He listened to the blandishments of the leaders of the Church party, and returned to Mexico City in October, 1866, from Orizaba, which city he had reached on his way to Vera Cruz to embark on the *Novara*, the same Austrian warship that had brought him to Mexico in 1864. In February, 1867, he went to Queretaro, where he was captured, tried for high treason, condemned, and shot on the 19th of the following June.

"The fate of Maximilian was indeed a very sad one, but when it is considered that on October 2, 1866, a few months only before his execution, he had issued a

decree ordering all Mexicans fighting for the independence of their country to be shot without any trial or other formality, and that had he lived he would have been a permanent centre of conspiracies of the monarchical party to overthrow the Republic of Mexico and restore the empire, it will be seen that his death might be considered as a political necessity. Besides, Maximilian's pardon would not have been considered in Europe as an act of generosity on the part of Mexico, but as a proof of weakness, and thus it might have encouraged the repetition of the experiment which ended his life, and it was thought necessary to give a lesson which would serve the purpose of discouraging, and thus preventing, all such experiments in the future. The sadness of the tragedy was considerably increased by the unhappy fate of his wife. It has been intimated sometimes that I had an important share in Maximilian's execution, but I had nothing whatever to do with it." *

* Romero, *op. cit.*

CHAPTER VI

MEXICO OF TO-DAY: THE REPUBLIC

HOW shall one undertake successfully to give an intelligent account of what Mexico is to-day, socially, politically, industrially? It is too great a snarl for awkward fingers to untangle; and too dark a prospect for any but an inspired prophet's eyes to penetrate. We must be contented with giving a brief statement of what are facts and the present ideals of the Mexican people in the matter of government; while we may perhaps venture a guess as to what their ambition is. As to whither those ideals and ambitions may lead, we defer consideration until our closing chapter.

We are to discuss, of course, that small remaining portion, known now as Mexico, of the great Spanish possessions in the New World, which at one time extended from the Isthmus of Panama away up to Vancouver Island, or the Straits of San Juan de Fuca; and from the shores of the Pacific to Atlantic waters, in the South, and in the North almost indefinitely towards the East.

How far into the main part of the North American continent, the realm of New Spain extended according to the claim of the Spanish rulers, it is impossible to determine. It hardly need be said that in view of what the ~~(retention)~~ Bull of Pope Alexander VI. granted the Spaniards, they resented all intrusion of other Europeans into the Americas: Portugal's possible rights in Brazil excepted.

The Portuguese had been for a long time pushing their

discoveries down the west coast of Africa and had at last rounded the Cape of Good Hope. The Treaty of Lisbon, 1479, had secured that west coast to the Portuguese; but it permitted the Spaniards to annex the Canary Islands. The Spaniards soon after that date sailed yet farther westward and an entirely new problem was created by Columbus' discovery of the West Indies in 1492.

With a view to dispel difficulties which might arise from conflicting interests, a Bull was obtained from Alexander VI. in 1493 which granted to Spain all discoveries west of an imaginary line drawn one hundred leagues west of the Azores and the Cape Verde Islands; and to Portugal all east of that line. Inasmuch as the rotundity of the earth was then beginning to be generally accepted by astronomers, navigators and others, the absurdity of this arrogant concession ought to have been noticeable.

The terms of this preposterous grant were modified by a treaty between the parties in interest, signed at Tordesillas in 1494, which fixed the boundary line 370 leagues west of the Cape Verde Islands. This change it was that gave Portugal at least a pretext for her claim to discoverer's rights in Brazil.

A glance at the pages of European history of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries will make it quite clear why England and France, upon both religious and political grounds, did not obey the mandate of the Pope and respect Spain's monopoly. A little further reading will probably satisfy the investigator that France and Spain both had plenty of troubles of their own, which kept them from getting into more over the question as to how far, one way or the other, the territorial claims of the two overlapped in the Mississippi Valley.



A MULE PACK TRAIN, ISTHMUS OF TEHUANTEPEC

TO THE
AMERICAN

Mexico has ceded to the United States, at different times, 930,590 square miles of territory, which is more than one-half of the territory over which she exercised jurisdiction, when that term had come to have a concrete meaning as applied to the Colony of Nueva España and, later, the Estados Unidos Mexicanos.

Mexico did not recognise the independence of Texas, until the Guadalupe-Hidalgo treaty was signed on February 2, 1848, at the end of the "Mexican War," and as a result thereof. That state, with the present Coahuila, had formed one of the largest provinces of Old Mexico. With parts or the whole of Colorado, Kansas, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Arizona, California, Nevada, Utah, and Wyoming, subsequently cut off from it, that State had seceded from Mexico in 1836, and the Republic of Texas had been annexed to the United States in 1845. It was this act which caused the Mexican War.

The division of Mexico into twenty-seven states, three territories, and one Federal District (the same as the District of Columbia in the United States), is a purely arbitrary one, for those divisions have not grown up and developed as have our own cognate political divisions. Under Spanish rule the country was divided into several provinces. In doing this, the Spaniards tried to pay attention to ethnographic distinctions, striving to define the provincial borders in accordance with the different nationalities of the aboriginal inhabitants.

Each province, therefore, meant a large extent of territory. When independence was recognised by Spain and the world generally, and the Federal Government was established, each province was made a state, except the territories of Tepic and Lower California. Since then some of the largest states have been subdivided

into two or even three smaller ones; and one new territory has been created.

Even if the original Spanish idea of dividing the country according to ethnological lines may seem somewhat fanciful, yet an inspection of the *Carta Etnográfica de México*, which is given in Don Antonio Garcia Cubas' interesting little monograph, "The Republic of Mexico in 1876," will show that less than forty years ago, there were recognised some fairly sharply drawn ethnological lines of demarcation. Observations of students and travellers since 1876 — and the writer claims to be both — confirm the opinion that the native Mexicans are still disposed to be somewhat clannish. Yet they are developing a fondness for travel and change of residence which almost exceed those of natives of Africa; and it is likely that distinctive ethnological lines will disappear more and more rapidly as facilities for travel are increased with the extension of railways.

Since Mexico accomplished her independence in 1821, there have been two Federal Constitutions, both modelled after the Constitution of the United States of America; two Central Constitutions, which organised the country into a Centralised Republic; and the two ephemeral empires that have been mentioned. The country is now organised, under the Constitution of February 5, 1857, — with its several amendments, — into a Federal Republic. Politically the organisation is almost identical with that of the United States of America. The functions of the Federal Government are divided into three branches: Executive, Legislative, and Judicial.

The Executive is the President chosen by the electors properly elected by the people. He holds office for four years and there is no constitutional provision for-

bidding his re-election. He has a Cabinet of seven members: Secretary of Foreign Affairs (State), of the Interior, of Justice and Public Instruction, of Communications (Postmaster General) and Public Works, of the Treasury, of War and Navy, and of *Fomento*, which means, concisely, Public Improvements, and combines the functions of many of the bureaus of the Department of the Interior in the United States of America, such as the General Land Office, Patent Office, Commissioner of Indian Affairs, etc., in addition to Colonisation.

No Vice-President of the Republic is elected, but an amendment to the Constitution, promulgated April 24, 1896, provides that in case of the permanent or temporary disability of the President, not caused by resignation or absence from the country on leave, the Secretary of Foreign Affairs, and after him the Secretary of the Interior, shall discharge the President's duties until Congress elects a President *pro tempore*. In case of resignation, Congress, when the resignation is accepted, elects a President *pro tempore*, and in case of leave of absence, the President recommends to Congress the person to fill his office temporarily; this recommendation is usually acted upon.

The National Legislature (corresponding to the United States Congress) is composed of a Senate and a House of Representatives. The Senators are elected for four years, one-half of their number being renewed every two years. The Representatives are elected for two years. The suffrage is given to all males who are of lawful age, twenty-one years, the customary disqualifications of imbeciles, felons, and others being recognised. One Representative is elected for every forty thousand inhabitants, and two Senators from each State.

The Federal Judiciary is composed of a Supreme Court, consisting of eleven Judges, four substitutes, one Attorney-General (who, it will have been noticed, is not a Cabinet Officer), and one Fiscal (who may be more closely described as a Solicitor-General). All these are elected by the people and serve for a term of six years. There are, besides, three Circuit and thirty-two District Courts.

The Mexican States are nominally independent in the administration of their domestic affairs, and their governments are modelled upon that of the Central Government: the Governor, the Legislature, the State Judiciary. We have said that the State Government is "nominally independent," and this is true. Although Mexico adopted the federal system rather to follow the example of the United States of America, than because it was especially well suited to local conditions, that system has not worked so easily or so satisfactorily in the former as it does in the latter. The tendency in Mexico has been rather towards centralisation and the increasing of the powers given by the Constitution to the President and his Cabinet. It is not necessary, in this place, to speak of usurpation of power by the Federal Executive.

The fact will have been noted that in Mexico the duties of two Cabinet officers, as they are usually found in all Constitutional Governments, and Monarchical, too, where the sovereign calls to his aid advisers, are united in one. We mean War and Navy. This is easily explained. During the civil wars, and for some time thereafter, the Mexican standing army was quite large. The Liberals strove for the reduction of the army; the Church party favoured a large one, because the officers, at least, took sides with the Church. Gen-

eral Diaz moved actively for the reduction of the army; and now the regular army, in peace, is actually very small, although every Mexican capable of carrying arms is liable to be called upon to perform military service from his twentieth to his fiftieth year.

The Mexican navy is, as yet, an almost negligible quantity, although the Government has ambitions which will probably be realised before long. In the circumstances, therefore, it is easily seen that one Cabinet officer can readily and efficiently discharge the duties of the head of the combined branches of the military service.

When we remember the almost constant state of turmoil which existed in Mexico from the time when her independence was recognised in 1821 until the firm hand of General Porfirio Diaz took the helm, it is really surprising that so much has been accomplished as has been done in the matter of general education. A résumé of its evolution will be found interesting.

In 1529, the Spanish clerics opened the College of San Juan de Letran (Lateran), in the City of Mexico, as the capital was thenceforth called because the strangers found the native name, Tenochtitlan, too long and too difficult to pronounce. It will be noted, on reading the following pages, that the Spaniards changed a number of place-names for just those same reasons, and always, we think, causing a loss of pleasing sound.

This first college, San Juan de Letran, was established for the purpose of giving an education to the sons of Spaniards, and secondary education to Indians who displayed special evidence of ability to assimilate European book-learning. The first class of students were, of course, nearly all half-castes, because it was the rule in New Spain — as in all Spanish colonies — for fathers,

who could afford to do so, to send their children home to be educated. Still, although the number of students may not have been very great, this institution was a good and commendable beginning; and patriotic Mexicans declare with pride that ninety years before the landing of the Pilgrims in New England, New Spain had its "Harvard."

In 1535, the first Spanish viceroy (from 1521 to 1535 the colony was administered by governors, till 1528, or by council, 1528 to 1535), Antonio de Mendoza, asked permission of his royal master to found a university in Mexico. Because of his knowledge that the Spanish rulers were kindly disposed towards all such movements, the viceroy assumed the responsibility of permitting competent priests to open at once some classes in higher learning. This fact has been advanced as an argument to controvert the statement that Spain has always been the enemy of education and popular enlightenment. As an argument, we give it full weight; but the pages of history still support the contention that in broad education Spain has not been conspicuous in her effort to uplift the masses. This was certainly true of Mexico before her independence.

Remembering the tediously slow galleons of the sixteenth century, and the appalling amount of "red-tape" that had to be unwound before a matter so important could pass up through the proper ministry and the King's Council to His Majesty, and then back again, it is not surprising that permission to open the university was not actually received in Mexico City and acted upon until 1553. Yet, again, the good Mexican declares that his country had a university eighty-three years before Harvard College was opened. This most important step was taken, officially, by Luis de Velasco, the

second viceroy, a progressive and enlightened official, who did much to further the material advance of New Spain.

In 1573, the Roman Catholic clergy opened two more schools in the City of Mexico, San Gregorio and San Ildefonso (see La Granja). The latter is still in existence, but it has passed into the control of secular teachers and it is modernised into the national preparatory school. It is really an important educational institution, and to its graduates is to be credited much of the material progress of their country.

Before the end of the sixteenth century, two more colleges and a divinity school had been founded, so that in the first sixty-five years of Spain's control in Mexico, seven institutions giving higher learning (as then understood) had been started. "No wonder that Mexico's capital became known as the Athens of the new world, producing men of great learning, such as Don Juan Ruiz de Alarcon and such notably erudite women as Juana Inez de Cruz. The extensive library of *Americana*, belonging to Don Jose de Agreda, of that city [Mexico], containing over 4000 books, many of them invaluable, attests the literary, antiquarian, scientific and artistic activity of the Spaniards who planted there in a short space of time so much of learning and such vast institutions dedicated to the instruction in all the higher branches of knowledge." *

Following the precedent long established in Europe, the University of Mexico for some time restricted its instruction to the arts, mathematics, and Latin. It was not until 1578 that a chair of medicine was added; but, even so, it was the first in the New World. In 1599, a second professorship in medicine was added; in 1661,

* Romero, *op. cit.*

anatomy and surgery were introduced, and dissection authorised. At first the viceroys appointed the professors; but later these gained their appointments through competitive examinations. In 1768 a Royal College for Surgeons was established in the City of Mexico, and this was well equipped in all departments.

In 1833 the Liberal party instituted a general revision of the educational institutions. A general Board of Education was created; the University was closed because it was suspected of having too strong a bias towards Conservatism. A School of Medical Science was founded, with ten professors giving a complete and up-to-date course. One of the almost perennial revolutions in the very next year brought about the closing of this school, but caused the University to be re-opened, and its officials made such a favourable report about the School, that it, too, was re-established.

The incessant revolutions, with their attendant changes of government, have made the course of higher education in Mexico anything but smooth. Still, it has progressed. The College of Mining and Engineering ranks with the best. The Technical Schools are admirable. The National Library, in the old Church of San Agustin, Mexico City, has well on towards half a million volumes, and many rare documents. When the different convents were suppressed at the disestablishment of the Roman Catholic Church, in 1864, all the books and manuscripts were gathered together, so that this library possesses a very large number of such treasures. The National Museum is deservedly famous throughout the world; "and so on through a list that would rival that of any other country."

In 1824, Humboldt said: "No city of the New Continent, not excepting those of the United States, presents



THE MILLION DOLLAR THEATRE IN GUANAJUATO

70 VINI ALABAMA

scientific establishments so great and solid as those of the capital of Mexico."

In general primary education outside of the Federal District and some few of the larger cities, a good deal remains to be done, especially in the matter of giving this rudimentary education to the Indians. But even so, "in the matter of general education, Mexico now stands upon a plane as high as, if not higher than, any of the Spanish-American Republics, out-ranking even Chili and the Argentine Republic, both of which greatly surpassed her in former years."

CHAPTER VII

THE PEOPLES OF MEXICO

PERHAPS the most interesting subject that the Republic of Mexico even yet affords the student, is that of its ethnology: this of course will naturally include some careful attention to the languages spoken, because Spanish is by no means the only speech that one hears in the country from the lips of those whom the visitor properly looks upon as natives.

Within the broad definition of the Races of Mankind, there are now found in Mexico representatives of two great divisions, Caucasian and North American Indian; but it should be borne in mind that comparatively few of the latter quite conform to our ideal when we think of the Indians who inhabited the northern parts of the continent, the United States and Canada. As a rule, the Mexican is decidedly the superior.

There are a few negroes, and since the railway development of the past few years, with the popularising of sleeping-cars, reclining-chair-cars, dining-cars, and the consequent autocratic porter, their number must be increasing. But even now it is hardly worth while to speak of them seriously; few of them are looked upon as permanent residents. Somewhat the same thing may be said of Asiatics. There are a great many Chinese and Japanese in Mexico; they are, strictly speaking, residents, but it is not to be supposed that they purpose identifying themselves with the country and assuming all the responsibilities of citizenship.

The representatives of mixed races (Mexican-European) are numerically great; but whether increasing or decreasing is not easily determined until the methods of taking the census are made more precise than they have yet been. A few years ago it was estimated that the proportion of population was about thus: Europeans and those of pure European lineage (practically all Spaniards), 19 per centum; native Indians 43 per centum; mixed blood 38 per centum.

When Spanish students first gave attention to this subject of Mexican ethnology, they classified the Indians into fourteen families, a few of which are yet represented in the United States of America. There were considered to be thirty-three principal tribes, but some of these have since become extinct. On looking over a list of tribal names, it is not difficult to segregate those which represent direct descendants of the Nahua invaders; while other names, such as Apache, Yaqui, Comanche, connect the Mexicans directly with some of the important Indian tribes of the Southwestern United States.

The similarity between the Mexican Indians and the Malayo-Mongolian races — the Japanese branch especially — has already been noted; and here it is sufficient to add that some of the Mexican writers claim this similarity gives substantial foundation to the opinion that the earliest inhabitants of Mexico originally came from Asia, or *vice versa*. In the *Evening Bulletin*, San Francisco, Cal., for June 7, 1897, there was an interesting article which was pertinent to this subject. It was based upon the report of Mr. F. W. Christian of the Polynesian Society, who claimed to have discovered (or should we not say "verified," for the fact has been for a long time more than suspected?) evidences that a large

trade between China and Central America, by way of the Caroline Islands and eastern groups of Polynesia, was carried on long before the beginning of the Christian era.

A somewhat apocryphal incident is referred to in the article. It was alleged that in the year 1897 a rock inscription had been discovered in the mountains of Magdalene district, State of Sonora. It was in Chinese ideographs, and one Sen Yup, said to have been a well educated Chinese, sojourning at Guaymas, made an examination of the inscription, which he found to be somewhat indistinct. He made a copy and translated enough to show that the characters were probably cut at least two thousand years ago. Had there really been anything of importance in this story, it would certainly have received greater attention from ethnologists than it has. It may be said here that very few Chinese literati can read ideographs of twenty centuries ago, and inasmuch as Mr. Sen was probably a merchant, it is almost incredible that he possessed such erudition.

But the statement that intercourse between China and America was carried on so long ago, need not necessarily be discredited or cause great amazement. The writer has shown in "The Coming China" that long before the Chinese made the acquaintance of Europeans in the early centuries of the Christian era, the people of the southern ports of the Chinese empire were very venturesome navigators and extended their voyages to remote regions.

In those days, it should be understood, the Chinese emperor exercised dominion over a goodly portion of the Malay peninsula. A chart of the Pacific Ocean currents indicates that even a Chinese junk *might* have made its way from an extreme eastern island of Poly-

nesia to the American coast. But all this is purely speculative; and the fact that there are no authentic accounts of such adventure in any Chinese records, militates heavily against the probability of both the inscription and the intercourse across southern seas.

The accidental resemblance even in both sound and meaning of words used by peoples of entirely different races, inhabiting widely separated regions of the earth, are — as all philologists aver — an extremely dangerous foundation upon which to build a theory of ethnic relationship. The writer enjoyed, for two years, most intimate and friendly intercourse with Mr. G. Tateno, then governor of Osaka, Japan, and later Japanese Minister at Washington. Mr. Tateno visited Mexico, and heard several native words that are used in Japan, and which have the same meaning in both countries. From this he argued linguistic affinity. But the writer has heard words used by natives of Equatorial Africa that have the same sound and meaning as Japanese words, and he would be loath to assert that there is ethnological connection between those two peoples, even in the remotest degree.

The Mexican Indians still maintain a remarkable tribal exclusiveness. They continue to be strongly endogamous, and this fact of intermarriage in small tribes is contributing to their physical decay. It also operates to defer, at least for some time to come, the complete and greatly to be desired assimilation of the whole Mexican population. Of race or colour prejudice there is practically none at all in the country. The only valid reason for there being so few negroes in Mexico as there are, is altogether a physical one and the negro himself is the only factor. He cannot compete, either physically or economically, with the native who accepts

a wage that the negro scorns, and upon which in all probability he would starve; but in every other way the negro in Mexico is granted an equality which astonishes most Americans. It is possible that some women of pure Indian blood would think they lost caste by marrying a negro, but even this is not to be too readily taken for granted.

Mr. Carson tells us that several years ago, an American Company took two thousand negroes to Mexico to work on a plantation. The men were paid good wages, were well fed, comfortably housed, and carefully looked after. At first they were very industrious and did more work than the peons. But before very long they became lazy; many of them married Indian women (so it seems the aversion and caste prejudice are not absolute), refused to work and became mere loafers, similar to the lowest type of "Squaw-man" amongst the Indians of the western states in America. They were discharged, soon became destitute, and the upshot was that the Mexican Government compelled the Company to deport them.

The Mexican Indians are, as a rule, a hard-working, sober, enduring race, and when educated, they often develop into distinguished men, as will be shown in the next chapter. When, by education and association, they have thrown off the possibly objectionable traits which may be said to attach to the native in his original environment, the Indians are accepted in marriage by the highest-rank families of pure Spanish blood. Although ex-President Diaz is not a pure-blooded Indian, yet he is of mixed Indian and Spanish descent, his maternal grandmother having been a member of the Mixteca tribe, and both her parents pure Indians. Mr. Diaz's second wife, justly famous for her beauty, educa-

tion (received in the United States), and charm of manner, is of pure Castilian stock and of high rank.

Charles Dudley Warner * drew an amusing picture of the relation of colour to sex in the stages of civilisation, and points his moral with a reference to Mexico. It is a fact that male birds are conspicuous for gay plumage; the hens being dressed in sober colours. This rule is also assumed to hold good among savages and barbarians in the human family. The men, when they dress at all, and do not use pigments as a substitute for garments, wear bright colours and more conspicuous ornaments than do the women. This is a general rule, but it is not invariable. As civilisation advances, we admit that the rule is reversed: the men assume plain raiment, while the women vie in splendour with the tropical birds of the masculine gender.

If this test were a reliable one and applied to Mexico, the conclusion would be inevitable that the people of that republic have not yet attained a lofty civilisation. The women of the lower classes are uniformly sober in apparel, and commonly wear a *rebosa*, a shawl or mantilla, which is generally made of some thin woollen or cotton fabric, and always faded to a dirty blue tint. This is drawn over the head and the scanty gown is usually brown or pale blue.

"It is the men who are resplendent, even the poorest and the beggars. The tall, conical hats give to all of them an *operatic* distinction; the lower integuments may be white (originally) as also the shirt and the jacket; or the man may have marvellous trowsers, slit up the sides and flapping about so as to show his drawers, or sometimes, in the better class, fastened down with silver buttons; but every man of them slings over his left

* *Harper's Magazine*, June, 1896.

shoulder or wraps about him, drawing it about his mouth on the least chill in the air, a brilliantly coloured *sarape*, or blanket, frequently of bright red. Even if he appears in white cotton, he is apt to wear a red scarf round his waist; and if he is of a higher grade, he has the taste of a New York alderman for a cravat. This variety and intensity of colour in the dress of the men gives great animation and picturesqueness to any crowd in the street, and lights up all the dusty highways."

The stranger, on arriving in Mexico and disembarking from his steamer — probably at Vera Cruz or Tampico, or after passing out through the railway station, will make his first acquaintance with the people through the *cargadores*, porters, who pounce upon his luggage to carry it, first to the nearby Custom House, and then to his hotel. The yellow skin, and black, beady, furtive eyes indicate the Indian unmistakably. These porters are clad most scantily, scarcely decently, in dirty white cotton, usually only a shirt and a pair of ragged trowsers rolled up to the knees; although a very few have a loose jacket of the same material. Stockings and shoes they never wear, but some have rough, straw sandals tied to their feet.

These *cargadores* are a survival from Aztec times, for those people used no beasts of burden, and the ancestors of these fellows were enslaved and compelled to do all the menial work of the country, even to transporting all the impedimenta of the army when on the march. They do not look very strong, yet by training and through inheritance they have developed a wonderful capacity. Two of them will carry a full-sized square piano with seeming ease, and a specially good *cargadore* will pack one hundred and fifty pounds over

the rough mountain trails, covering more miles in a day than a mule can, and keep it up longer than the beast.

They use the forehead strap, the breast strap, the shoulder strap, sometimes only one, at other times a combination of two, or even all three; and they steady themselves with a long, stout staff. In large places, these porters are licensed by the municipal government, and show a brass plate bearing a number. It is surprising how reliable, obliging, and honest these men are; possibly it may be that they have a wholesome dread of the police and punishment for misbehaviour.

If the traveller arrives in winter and there happens to be a "norther" blowing, he will see all the natives shivering with cold, although to the visitor from the ice and snow of the north, the chill may be scarcely noticeable. Then, the *cargadore* will wrap himself in his bit of red blanket, the *sarape*, usually of bright red colour with black stripes at each end. Sometimes, he cuts a slit in the middle of the *sarape* through which he passes his head and the blanket falls in front and at the back like a cloak.

These *peons*, for they are the descendants of the slaves of former Spanish and Aztec times, will always find some way to get a huge, steeple-crowned straw hat, *sombrero*, the brim of which may be quite two feet wide. They often use the *sombrero* as a basket, and the visitor who goes to market at any right time in the morning (as he certainly will do, if he wishes to see one of the most interesting sights in Mexican life) will frequently see a porter buy fish or vegetables and carry the whole lot off in his hat.

Mexicans of means will often wear a *sombrero* made of the finest felt that is a quarter of an inch thick.

These are absolutely impervious to water and retain their shape and softness most marvellously. They are frequently decorated with heavy gold or silver lace, and in country towns the wealth of a man is commonly gauged by the size and style of his headgear and the character of its decorations. Some of the finest of these *sombreros* cost more than a hundred dollars, gold; and even to-day are not infrequently to be seen worn with a costume that is otherwise conventionally European.

The Mexican "swell" in town sometimes affects a most striking riding costume. His trowsers are skin-tight from hip to calf, and ornamented along the outer seam with as many small, metal buttons (silver, if he can afford them) as can be sewed on. His ruffled shirt will be a thing of beauty, and over it he wears a short *bolero* jacket, also laced and decorated with innumerable bright buttons. Riding-boots he eschews, in order that his slashed trowsers may fall well down over his shoes. Huge spurs are, of course, in evidence, and the costume is completed with a hundred dollar felt *sombrero*. The whole effect is picturesque to the verge of opera-bouffe standard.

Thus got up and mounted on a "fiery" steed, saddled, bridled, caparisoned and ornamented strictly to harmonise with the rider's elegance, the cavalier ambles off down the street for a block or so. Then he draws rein beneath the window or balcony of some fair acquaintance. The *señora* or *señorita* at once orders her servant to offer the *caballero* a lemonade or *refresco* to revive him after his great exertion!

Nearly all travellers in Mexico agree that the Indians seem to be very melancholy. If there is anything in heredity, and if those natives keep alive any of the traditions of their race or tribe (which they certainly do),



A GROUP OF TOREADORES

TO THE
VIRGIL
ALPHABET

this is not surprising; for with all the legislation and all the pretence of material and social advance, the native Indians have received but inadequate return for what has been taken from them.

In cities and towns wherein this class preponderates, although the streets may be crowded, as they always are on feast-days or Saturday afternoon and early evening, the Indians move along silently, for they are either barefooted or shod with noiseless sandals. The sound of laughter or animated conversation is rarely heard. These people look about them with real or affected indifference, make their petty purchases, and go their way. There is none of the noise and skylarking which one expects in an American or European crowd of Saturday night shoppers.

Even the children, and there are plenty of them, steal along silently behind their parents. The boys dress just like their fathers — the same dirty white suits, the same straw sombrero, the same *sarape*. The girls are simply diminutive women; with gown and *rebosa* just like their mothers. In this similarity of costume between parents and children, there is a likeness between Holland and Mexico.

There are times, however, when the Mexican displays animation enough to satisfy the most exacting. He has taken to bull-fighting and cock-fighting with veritable Castilian avidity and will wager his last *centavo* on his favourite. His excitement at the critical moment of defeat or victory rouses him to the highest pitch of intensity. Then, too, the charms of a railway journey rouse him from the usual apathy. It does not require that the journey shall be undertaken for any definite purpose; it is sufficient that he is in the train, going *somewhere*, and by and by is coming back. To

give himself this pleasure, he will deprive his wife and children of bread and let them be turned out of their hovel, just because the money to pay the rent is taken to buy a railway ticket.

When we pass from the Indians to the classes of mixed blood, with whom the manners and customs of the Spaniards had asserted themselves and have been preserved; and then when we go on to consider the upper classes, the true Spaniards, perhaps, or Europeans or Americans who have taken up such permanent residence as to be counted as part of the social world, there is little to differentiate the people of Mexico from those of any other country, with the exceptions that have already been alluded to rather jocosely. Costume is now European; social functions are similar within the conventions that are required by the strict keeping the youth of the two sexes apart. These conventions can hardly be said to relax at the stiff, formal balls at which young ladies and young men do sometimes waltz together.

In certain sections of Mexico City, "new parts" they are called, and in a very few other cities, there are some really handsome residences, and those which have been built for Americans or Englishmen are now equipped with modern conveniences in the way of bathrooms, furnaces or hot-water heating plants, and oftener comfortable open fireplaces which throw out just the needed artificial heat to overcome the chill at night or the penetrating cold of a "norther."

But as a rule, the best of Mexico's palatial residences are dreary places. Very few of them show an attractive exterior and most of them are set down in most incongruous surroundings. The interior is often architecturally beautiful, and the decorations, furniture, and bric-a-

brac will often make the stranger come perilously near breaking the tenth commandment. Only, when he looks about for a warm corner, or expects the ordinary sanitary conveniences, he will be bitterly disappointed. Yet, after all, perhaps Mexico is not much worse than other Latin countries.

Residences are rarely over two storeys in height. The ground floor windows are protected by strong iron bars let into the stone casement, and are closed with iron or solid wooden shutters. There are gratings to the upper windows, and cynical observers of Mexican ways are prone to declare that bars and gratings are by no means exclusively to keep out burglars; being intended quite as much to keep *in* the daughters of the house!

This recalls to mind the *hacer el oso* (we should probably express this in picturesque slang as "doing the bear act"), and it is such an amusingly typical aspect of life in Mexico, that we quote Mr. Carson's account of it. "Under the system of seclusion of which she is the victim, the Mexican girl has but two things in life to occupy her, love and religion. The classical Spanish picture of the maiden at the barred window or leaning, Juliet-like, from a balcony, while her sweetheart thrums music to her on his mandolin or guitar, is reproduced every evening in Mexico. Courtship is a delightfully difficult pursuit. A young man will, by chance, meet a girl in the street or on the plaza. Her languishing black eyes will haunt him and, having followed her home, he must content himself for days and weeks with watching the house. He has reached the stage which is known as *Hacer el oso* (to play the bear), a phrase in comic allusion to his lovesick pacing up and down under the adored one's window as a bear walks backwards and forwards

in his cage hour after hour. Now comes the girl's turn. Safe behind her curtain, or in the darkness of her balcony, she can make her coquettish little mind up whether he is quite the kind of bear she wants. If he is, she finds a dozen ways of encouraging him; a smile, a wave of the hand, a suspicion of the blowing of a kiss are enough to make the bear happy. When she goes to mass or walks in the plaza, the faithful bear follows her, and although they cannot exchange a word, they can find happiness in looks."

✓ It is not an easy matter for a stranger to gain the right to come and go freely in a Mexican home. Yet when once confidence has been established and friendship gained, the absolute cordiality is unusually attractive; for the Mexican throws quite as much sincerity into his, "my house, and everything in it, is yours," as does the Castilian, and perhaps more.

Yet, after all is said, to anyone accustomed to the freedom of New York, or London, or even Paris (within proper limits, of course), society in the City of Mexico seems very dull; while in the other towns it is simply impossible. Dances, musicales, and other social entertainments are rare, although the exceptions are often conspicuous by their very charm.

The men are slowly coming to imitate the rest of the world with a semblance, at least, of athletics, but such fearful physical exertion as golf and tennis are still repulsive to the fashionable women of Mexico. With both sexes, the chief amusement, or recreation, of the upper class is a drive late in the afternoon along a course that is almost a fixed quantity: perhaps to the Chapultepec Club, near the castle which is famous, where the cosmopolitan inhabitants of the capital gather on a fine Sunday afternoon. Here one sees almost as many car-

riages as in the Riverside Drive, "The Row," or the Bois de Boulogne; and if one sits at a table outside, to drink a glass of the excellent Mexican beer, he will hear almost every European language spoken.

The popular carriages are barouches, landaus, and Victorias, quite up-to-date in fashion, and are drawn by excellent Spanish-Arabian horses. The liveries are correct English style, although some of the ultra-conservative families cling to the native costume of tight trousers decorated along the seams with silver, gold, or gilt buttons, short *bolero* coat richly braided, and an enormous sombrero. The occupants of these carriages are the ladies and the old men. The younger men drive English dog-carts, or ride in "The Row," alongside the carriage drive. Of course the motor-car is growing in favour at Mexico City quite as rapidly as in any other part of the world.

Naturally, the Mexican towns follow the Spanish system, and were originally built round a public square, the plaza. As the place grew, other plazas — often called *alamedas* — were laid out in each new quarter. There will almost surely be found a church facing each plaza, and on the main one is the cathedral, if a diocesan city. Here, too, the lower storeys of the municipal buildings, and all the others that surround the plaza, will be extended over the sidewalks as arcades, called *portales*, in front of some shops and cafés which are the great gathering places, where the men partake of liquid refreshment.

The plaza is the town's breathing-place, and in smaller places the public market is held there. On Sundays and feast-days, a band plays in the plaza. In the larger towns this will be a military or garrison band; in smaller places, the municipal or police band. The music is

always excellent both in character and in execution. Even the Indians have a natural fondness for music, and appear to enjoy classical compositions quite as much as "rag-time." Something more will be said of the markets in a later chapter.

CHAPTER VIII

SOME OF MEXICO'S GREAT MEN

WE shall probably go back quite far enough to satisfy our readers, if we begin this record with *Nexahualcoyotl*, an early king of the Acolhuans, or Tezcucans, a nation belonging to the same great family as the Aztecs of Tenochtitlan (Mexico). The Tezcucans were, man for man, fully the peers of the Tenochtitlans in warlike prowess; and they certainly surpassed them in culture and refinement.

The Acolhuans are credited with having entered the valley of Anahuac (from the northwest) somewhere about the end of the twelfth century of our era. They built their capital city on the eastern shore of the lake, opposite Tenochtitlan, and gave it the name of Tezcuco, by which they themselves were subsequently known, as well as the lake.

They spread thence over the northern part of the country until their career was checked by the invasion of another kindred race, the Tepanecs, who, after a desperate struggle, succeeded in taking the city, slew the ruler as well as thousands of his people, and completely subjugated the kingdom. *Nexahualcoyotl*, heir to the throne, was then but fifteen years old. He saw his father butchered before his eyes, while he himself was concealed among the branches of a tree which overhung the spot.

We have not space to follow in detail the vicissitudes of this young prince's fortunes for the next few years.

But his character is indicated by the loyalty of his people in giving him shelter, and in assisting him to avoid the fierce hatred of Maxtla, the son of the Tepanec usurper, to whom, on his father's death, had been bequeathed the Tezcucan territory with all the rest of the domains.

It is told that at one time Nexahualcoyotl was just able to cross the crest of a hill, with pursuers close behind, when he saw a girl cutting some plants. He told her who he was and asked her to cover him with the stalks. This she did, and when the pursuers came up, they asked if she had seen the fugitive. She said she had, and pointing down a path added: "He went that way."

Large rewards were offered for the prince's capture or proof of his death; but he had no fear that any of his loyal subjects would betray him. He once asked a young peasant, who did not know him: "Would you seize and deliver up Prince Nexahualcoyotl, if he came your way?" "I would not!" was the emphatic reply. "What, not for the hand of a beautiful lady who would bring you a rich dowry?" The peasant's reply was a sneering laugh, accompanied by a shake of the head.

But the oppression and brutality of Maxtla disgusted nobles and peasants alike. A plan was secretly made for a general uprising; and on the appointed day, the prince found himself at the head of a force sufficiently strong to face his adversaries. He routed them, returned to his capital as the rightful claimant of the throne, and was crowned in the palace of his fathers. Ere long a league was made between Tenochtitlan, Tezcuco, and Tlacapan. It was the fact of this league which doubtless led the Spaniards to think that it was an Aztec "empire" which they were conquering.

Nexahualcoyotl's first royal act was to proclaim a

general amnesty, asserting, "that a monarch may punish, but revenge is unworthy of him." His organisation of the State was truly remarkable, and we must agree with Prescott that he evolved a political institution which was "certainly not to have been expected among the aborigines of America." The reign of this wise, humane, and politic sovereign may well be called the Golden Age of Tezcuco.

It is from the history written by a descendant in a direct line from the kings of Tezcuco, that we get practically all the information we possess of events in Mexico during the three or four centuries just preceding the Spanish conquest. Fernando de Alva Ixtilxochitl, it seems to us, is entitled to a place in the ranks of Mexico's great men. His line of descent was from the principal wife or queen of King Nezahualatilli, the heir to Nexahualcoyotl's crown, and his only offspring by the queen.

After Nexahualcoyotl had succeeded in re-establishing himself, it is to be assumed that he conformed to the customs of the country and had, in addition to his royal consort, a plurality of wives, or, at any rate, numerous concubines. As a consequence, in a few generations the royal posterity became so numerous that, as was inevitable, the cadet branches were reduced to such poverty as to be compelled to earn a bare subsistence in any way they could; often by the most humble occupations.

Ixtilxochitl was able to do better for himself than most of his relatives and connections, for he maintained a respectable position. "He filled the office of interpreter to the viceroy, to which he was recommended by his acquaintance with the ancient hieroglyphics and his knowledge of the Mexican and Spanish languages. His

birth gave him access to persons of the highest rank in his own nation, some of whom occupied important civil posts under the new government, and were thus enabled to make large collections of Indian manuscripts, which were liberally opened to him. He had an extensive library of his own, also, and with these means diligently pursued the study of the Tezcucan antiquities. He deciphered the hieroglyphics, made himself master of the songs and traditions, and fortified his narrative by the oral testimony of some very aged persons, who had themselves been acquainted with the Conquerors. From such authentic sources he composed various works in the Castilian on the primitive history of the Toltec and the Tezcucan races, continuing it down to the subversion of the empire by Cortés." * This historian, who wrote in the early part of the seventeenth century, must not be confounded with a chief of the same name, whose claim to the Tezcucan throne was supported by Cortés.

It is perfectly safe to say that when the name Montezuma † is read or heard, everyone thinks of the Aztec monarch who ruled the Tenochtitlan dominions, and led the Aztec league, at the time when the Spaniards entered upon their Conquest. He was, however, Montezuma II., a nephew of his immediate predecessor, Ahuitzotl, and a grandson of Montezuma I., who reigned from 1436 to 1464. The identity of the two is denoted in Mexican legends by calling the first Ilhuicanina, and the second Xocoyotzin.

Following a custom which had crystallised into unwritten law, of electing the monarch, Montezuma II. was

* Prescott.

† I find that this name is transliterated by very precise Spanish-American writers, Montecutzoma; but it is also written in a variety of other ways. J. K. G.



EL MERCADO, A TYPICAL MODERN MARKET-HOUSE

TO THE
ABBOT OF

chosen in preference to his brothers, because of his superior qualifications, both as a soldier and as a priest. As was often the case in ancient Egypt, this combination of martial and ecclesiastical offices was not at all uncommon in Anahuac. When Montezuma's election was announced to him, he was found sweeping down the steps of the great temple of the national war-god, Huitzilopochtli. He received the "committee of notification" with all the modesty of a modern ruler, diplomat, or statesman, and listened attentively to the address made by his relative and later to be martial colleague, Nezahualpilli, king of Tezcucó. The speech may be read in the works of either Torquemada or Bustamante, and it may be taken as a model to-day. Unfortunately, Montezuma's reply has not come down to us as precisely as has the address.

Of the times between 1502, when Montezuma ascended the throne, and 1519, when the Spaniards crossed his pathway, it is unnecessary to say more here than that he displayed all the energy and enterprise that had been expected of him. Before being ceremoniously crowned, he subdued a rebellion in a neighbouring province and brought to Tenochtitlan a large number of unfortunate captives who were sacrificed at the time of his coronation. Some of his hereditary enemies, Tlascalcan nobles, came to the Aztec capital in disguise, to witness the ceremonies. They were detected and reported to Montezuma; but he refused to punish them, and instead of having them offered as a sacrifice to the gods, gave them courteous entertainment and permitted them to go unharmed.

Besides conducting the almost constant wars of the earlier years of his reign, Montezuma gave careful attention to the internal development of his kingdom.

He imitated those European monarchs who chose to wander about the streets of their capitals in disguise, in order to see for themselves what was going on. Yet the luxurious state in which he lived seems to have been befitting such an absolute monarch, and in most ways his apparent splendour was pleasing to his subjects.

Nevertheless, his name, which meant "the sad or severe man," was altogether appropriate and descriptive of his character. Perhaps, for he was intensely superstitious, this was due to premonition of the impending doom that was even then gathering and which was to be consummated by the hands of the strange white gods.

It is reasonably certain that had Montezuma pursued towards the Spaniards, in the later years of his reign, the same methods that had marked his treatment of his domestic enemies in the earlier years, there would doubtless have been a different story to tell of the Conquest of Mexico. With the confirmation of the Spaniards' landing came the vacillation which ruined Montezuma and turned some of his best warriors into implacable enemies. The end of his career is pathetic, no matter in what spirit it may be read.

In 1510, nine years before the Spaniards first entered the city of Tenochtitlan, and only eight years after Montezuma ascended the throne, there were ominous portents of impending disaster. The waters of Lake Tezcuco, without any apparent meteorological cause, overflowed and poured through the streets of the capital, sweeping away many buildings. The next year, one of the towers of the great temple that Montezuma had built (the act itself was supposed to be displeasing to Quetzalcoatl, "The Fair God") burst into flames without any apparent cause, and burnt in spite of all

efforts to extinguish the fire. Then came three comets, and after them a mysterious light in the east, that extended upwards from its broad base on the horizon, to a tapering point near the zenith. There were, too, constant and pitiful wailings, like the sound of human voices, that filled the air. All these were to Montezuma, confirmation of his fear that the downfall of his kingdom was soon to come. In a footnote, Prescott says he omits from his text the most astounding miracle of all; although legal attestations of its truth were furnished the Court of Rome. This was the resurrection of Montezuma's sister, Papantzin, four days after her burial. She came back from the spirit land to warn her brother of the approaching overwhelming of his power by the white strangers from beyond the eastern sea.

One should read in full Prescott's account of Montezuma's last days; when he was a prisoner of state, even if he did insist upon telling his people that he was not such; that the Spaniards were his guests and as such must be treated with respect. It was in the interest of peace, perhaps, that he was so abject and pusillanimous. In the hour of his death, he repulsed Father Olmedo, who besought him to kiss the crucifix, declaring: "I have but a few moments to live, and will not at this hour desert the faith of my fathers." He commended his children to Cortés' care and died June 30, 1520, of a wound inflicted by one of his own subjects, when he showed himself to a mob, in revolt against the Spaniards, and whom Montezuma thought to placate by his appearance. Cortés faithfully carried out the king's trust. The daughters were baptised, married to Spaniards of rank, and given handsome dowries by the government. If a man, to be called

"great," must be consistently and continuously so from youth throughout his whole life, Montezuma was not "great."

Legend says that Montezuma's own nephew was the chief, whose act of defiance towards the monarch incited the mob to attack the temple, where the Spaniards were domiciled. The king was held there as a prisoner, and the mob hurled their weapons and stones (it was one of the latter which inflicted the mortal wound), when he appeared and tried to quiet and disperse them.

We make every reasonable allowance for the tendency towards diffusiveness and repetition among people of such civilisation as the Aztecs. We must also consider that a prayer offered by one of their priests could not have gained much in grace and fervour on being put into Spanish. We must then admit that it suffered yet more in being translated from Spanish into English. But with all this, we are compelled to say that the prayer of the Aztec *teoteucalli*, high priest, when he commended Cuitlahuatl's soul to the care of the highest god, and besought His guidance in the choice of his successor, leaves little room for improvement by our own liturgists.

Montezuma was succeeded by his brother, Cuitlahuatl, who reigned but four months and then died suddenly of smallpox (this disease was one of the "blessings" introduced by the Spaniards). It was a brief, but glorious reign, for it had witnessed the overthrow of the Spaniards and their expulsion from Mexico. The chiefs, who constituted an electoral college, were convened and chose Guatemozin (or Quauhtematzin, or Cuauhtemoc). He had married his cousin, the beautiful Tecuichpo, Montezuma's daughter. The description of him, as

being handsome, bold, skilled in handling weapons, unexcelled in his knowledge of military art, and having remarkable literary taste, which Wallace gives in his novel, is entirely borne out by the statements of native historians and contemporaneous Spaniards.

His hatred of the Spaniards was of that intensely religious kind which is absolutely implacable. He prepared to drive the last one of them out of his country, and he put a price on their heads. When the Conquerors returned to renew the siege of Mexico City, on their way they frequently found the arms and accoutrements of their unfortunate fellow-countrymen displayed in the temples of the cities and towns which they re-conquered as the actual Conquest of Mexico was made final and complete.

We know that Guatemozin's efforts were unavailing, despite his skill and bravery; but as the last Aztec ruler, he certainly played well the part of a great man, and he is entitled to be mentioned here. He would not surrender, and he refused to parley with Cortés, even after the prowess of the reinforced Spaniards had demonstrated the futility of further resistance. His final battle was a furious and bloody one, but at last he was captured, after an unsuccessful effort to escape across Lake Tezcuco, at the end of that battle in which the native allies of the Spaniards gave full vent to their passion for blood.

For himself, Guatemozin asked no consideration; but he pleaded, and successfully, for his wife and his immediate followers. When Captain Garci Holguin, who had made the capture, asked the king to put an end to the combat and slaughter, by commanding the others to surrender, the defeated and crushed monarch said: "It is not necessary. They will fight no longer, when

they know that their ruler is taken!" It was true; the end of the Aztec kingdom had come.

Later, Guatemozin and his colleague, the lord of Tacuba, were tortured by the Spaniards in an effort to compel them to indicate the place where treasure of fabulous amount was supposed to be hidden; but not a word could be extorted. Cortés did at last intervene to stop this brutality; but it was too late to wipe out a stain upon his memory for having been, if but for a few minutes, a party to such outrageous treatment of his royal prisoner.

Cortés' allusion to Guatemozin as a "rebel," when the Spanish commander reported to his royal master, causes a feeling of contemptuous indignation. A little later, Guatemozin was suspected of being privy to a conspiracy to massacre the Spaniards. Both he and the lord of Tacuba declared their innocence, but Cortés did not believe them, and they were hanged. Prescott says: "Among all the names of barbarian princes, there are few entitled to a higher place on the roll of fame than that of Guatemozin. He was young, and his public career was not long; but it was glorious."

So much has been written already in these pages of Cortés that it seems scarcely necessary to add anything about him as the Conqueror of Mexico; but as a great individual man, whose name is so intimately associated with that country, it is well to say a few words. Hernando (Hernan, or Fernando) Cortés was born in 1485 at Medellin, a town in the southeast corner of the old province of Estremadura, which corresponded to the modern ones of Badajoz and Caceres on the Portuguese frontier. Bernal Diaz, the most eminent historian of the Conquest, declares that Cortés was born in the same year as that "infernal beast, the false heretic

Martin Luther, by way of compensation, no doubt, since the labours of the one to pull down the True Faith were counterbalanced by those of the other to maintain and extend it." This statement, which would make Cortés to have been born two years before he almost certainly was, is rather undue zeal than calm history.

The house in which Cortés was born stood until 1809, when it was almost destroyed by the French, only a few fragments of the wall remaining. Many travellers from all lands had obtained the privilege of sleeping in this famous dwelling; most of them doing so because of zeal for the Romish faith; others from historians' enthusiasm, or the mere idle desire of tourists to "do the correct thing!"

Hernando received some education at Salamanca, but he never was very fond of his books. At the age of nineteen, in 1504, he sailed for the New World, in a vessel commanded by Alonso Quentaro, and after many adventures, none of them to the credit of that captain, Cortés reached Hispaniola (Haiti). He was kindly received by Governor Ovando's secretary, in the absence of that official, and when the governor returned, Cortés received a grant of land, with a *repartimiento* of Indians, and was appointed notary public of Agua.

He varied the monotony of "a peasant's life" as tiller of the soil, by accompanying Diego Velasquez when he went to suppress some revolts of the natives. In 1511 Cortés attended Velasquez in the conquest of Cuba. On this island he had some escapades not altogether creditable; and he was, besides, suspected of more serious misdemeanours which led to his being imprisoned. He escaped, however, and sought sanctuary in a neighbouring church. But venturing outside the sacred walls, he was seized by Juan Escudero,

whom he afterwards had the satisfaction of hanging in New Spain.

He was sent in irons to Hispaniola, but again escaped and returned to Cuba, where he married Catalina Xuarez. Through the influence of her family and other causes, a reconciliation with Governor Velasquez was effected. This eventually led to Cortés' appointment to command the armada sent to take advantage of the wonderful discoveries of Grijalva in Central America. That this was not brought about without friction springing from envy, need hardly be asserted.

After defeating, capturing, and executing Guatemozin, Cortés rebuilt the City of Mexico and established order throughout his immediate domain. Eventually his wife joined him, but she died later; and after some years, on his return to Spain, he married Doña Juana de Zuñiga. It will interest at least the fair readers of these pages, to be told that, "one of his presents to his youthful bride excited the admiration and envy of the fairer part of the Court. This was five emeralds, of wonderful size and brilliancy. These jewels had been cut by the Aztecs into the shapes of flowers, fishes, and into other fanciful forms, with an exquisite style of workmanship which enhanced their original value. They were, not improbably, part of the treasure of the unfortunate Montezuma, and, being easily portable, may have escaped the general wreck of the *noche triste*."

Although honours were conferred upon Cortés, although he was ennobled and given the title of Marquis of Oaxaca, and granted immense estates in Mexico, yet like many another of his contemporaries, the last years of his life were not entirely happy, because of the jealousy which his successes developed in the minds of small men. He was extremely popular with the masses:



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indeed, the attentions these would have shown him compelled him to leave the city of Seville and retire to the neighbouring village of Castilleja de la Cuesta, where he died December 2, 1547, in the sixty-third year of his age.

Bernardino de Sahagún, Juan de Torquemada, and Francisco Xavier Clavigero, all ecclesiastics, were not "great" in the sense of being famous and successful military leaders or eminent statesmen. Yet their names should be mentioned because of their labours in the field of historical research. We are greatly indebted to them. The first is declared by Prescott to be our most important authority whenever the Aztec religion is concerned; and the account which Prescott gives of Sahagún's method in preparing his "Universal History," and of the influence which that work exerted upon his bigoted co-religionists, is almost as fascinating as a romance. The work is partly accessible to students; but what we have lacks much valuable material that was doubtless in the original, and which was probably destroyed by fanatical hands.

Torquemada, although he drew largely upon Sahagún, is nevertheless declared by Prescott to be one of the best guides in tracing the stream of historic truth up to the fountain-head. The Abbé Clavigero was avowedly an apologetist. One of his objects in writing his "*Storia antica del Mexico*," was to vindicate his countrymen from what he believed to be the misrepresentations of Robertson, Raynal, and De Pau. Clavigero was born at Vera Cruz, in 1731, and on the expulsion of his order, the Jesuits, from Mexico in 1767, went to Bologna, Italy, where he died in 1787. Sahagún was born in Spain, 1499; lived in Mexico from 1529 and died there in 1590. Torquemada was born in Spain in 1545, went to Mexico

when quite young, and died there in 1617. The three were, therefore, closely identified with the colony at important periods.

If the long line of governors and viceroys, from Cortés, 1521, to Juan O'Donojú, 1821, is passed without further notice here, it is not altogether because none of them deserved to be called "great," but because of the limitations of space. We pass on to a time when a consideration of Mexico's great men embraces those who were actually Mexican born.

Of Herrera, Morelos, Iturbide, and several other heroes of Mexican independence, we should like to say more than we have, but we must refer the reader to other writers who have discussed them fully. From their time until very recent years the list of Mexico's great men is not large, and the names are not conspicuous for remarkable traits. That of Antonio Lopez de Santa Ana is familiar, yet it hardly satisfies our ideal of true greatness.

On the 15th of December, 1830, there was born in the city of Oaxaca, one Porfirio Diaz. He came of humble but good family. His father was a respectable innkeeper. In his veins flows a small strain of Mixteco Indian blood, of which he is very proud. He contemplated a literary career, but in 1854, when the Ajutla Revolution broke out, he joined the forces opposed to Santa Ana, and has since followed a military and political career. It is rash to say that he will never again re-appear prominently in Mexico, even if he is eighty-two years of age.

Of all those who are, perhaps, making Mexican history now, the time is not ripe to say who are and who are not "great."

CHAPTER IX

THE UNITED STATES OF MEXICO

ON the 6th of February, 1778, an event occurred at Paris, which was destined to have great effect upon Spain. It was the signing of a treaty of alliance between the French Government and the provisional Government of the United States of America. France recognised the independence of the thirteen British colonies and promised to render them material assistance in their war with the mother-country. The United States covenanted not to make peace with Great Britain until the latter had recognised the independence of those colonies. In April, 1779, Spain joined this alliance by signing a treaty with France; but she did not explicitly recognise the independence of those British colonies by direct, official, diplomatic negotiation with the United States of America.

This triple alliance (if we may presume to call it such) had a double effect upon the British Government. First, Parliament saw that it would be wise to try to conciliate the young United States of America, and two Acts were passed: one of them repealed the notorious "Tea Act" and that which had abrogated the charter of Massachusetts Colony; and it went on to declare that Parliament would not contend for the right to levy taxes on the thirteen British colonies in America. The second Act provided for the sending of commissioners to America to treat with those colonies for peace. The second immediate effect of that treaty of alliance — France, the

United States, Spain — was that Great Britain declared war on France, March 13, 1778.

In 1783, then, France and England were at war when the American commissioners appointed to negotiate at Paris with British commissioners for a treaty of peace, had reason to suspect that France and Spain were both disposed to check the further growth of the United States of America. This was to have been accomplished by defining the western boundary of the new nation at the crest of the Alleghany Mountains.

For this reason the American commissioners dispensed with the further friendly offices of Comte de Vergennes, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs and carried on their negotiations with the British commissioners direct and privately. A provisional treaty was agreed to on the 30th of November, 1782; but this was not to be declared operative until after peace between Great Britain and France had been settled. As this latter condition was achieved by the treaty of Versailles, September 3, 1783, that provisional treaty between the United States and Great Britain was made the formal one, was signed without change in its fundamental conditions on the same day, and subsequently ratified by both governments.

The enormous territorial claims of the French in North America, were declared to extend to the river Rio Grande del Norte and across the Rocky Mountains to the Gulf of California, in utter disregard of Spain's pretensions by right of discovery confirmed by a Papal Bull. In the northwest, for various cogent reasons, there was no definitive line between what France claimed to be hers, and the Hudson's Bay Company's possessions.*

* Cf. George Bancroft, History of the "United States of America," Part III, chap. XIV; Vol. II, p. 224.

In the north, the territory stretched away to an undetermined distance. On the east, Spanish and French claims were assumed to be demarked by a line midway between Pensacola (Florida) and Mobile (Alabama), projected northward until the watershed of the Alleghany Mountains determined the French and English frontier.

By the terms of the treaty of Paris, 1763, France ceded to Great Britain all the territory she claimed in North America east of the Mississippi River, except New Orleans and two small islands off Newfoundland, which she kept for fishing stations with certain fishing rights. New Orleans and everything west of the Mississippi, which territory she called Louisiana, were given up to Spain.

In 1801 this Louisiana was receded to France by a secret treaty which Napoleon, then First Consul, had secured from Spain. In 1803, Louisiana was purchased by the United States for a sum equivalent to \$15,000,000. This much space has been given to a somewhat collateral subject, in order to make clear just why Spain was a party, in 1783, to a scheme which might have operated to check for a time the westward growth of the United States; although it is inconceivable, in the light of actual history, that that country could have been held to a line along the summit of the Alleghanies.

Naturally, the recognition of the independence of the United States of America produced a profound impression throughout all Spanish possessions in the Western Hemisphere. For a moment, we are considering that impression as it appeared in other regions than Mexico, already contemplating independence. It led the discontented colonists to assume that, if the thirteen colonies which had previously yielded allegiance to Great Britain, could throw off their connection with the

mother-country and establish themselves as an independent nation, they too might do the same thing.

In the circumstances, the promptness with which Spain had acted (even if coerced by her stronger ally, France), in the case wherein British colonies were concerned, established for herself and her American colonies an awkward precedent. It convinced the native Americans of Spanish-America that any European colony in America had the right, recognised by Spain in that case of the British colonies, to sever its connection with the home government, not only for political reasons, but for economic ones as well: the latter, as was later demonstrated, quite as cogent reasons for action looking towards absolute independence as the former.

"It was this consideration that caused Count de Aranda, a very able statesman, to advise Charles III., immediately upon the recognition of the United States by Spain, to establish among the Spanish colonies in America three great empires — one in Mexico, another in Peru, and a third on the Spanish Main, which should embrace New Granada, Venezuela, etc., each to be ruled by a member of the Spanish royal family. He proposed that the King should assume the title of Emperor, that the new sovereigns should intermarry into the Spanish royal family, and that each of them should pay an annual tribute into the Spanish treasury. Although this scheme might have proved difficult of realisation, and might in the process of its execution have had to undergo radical changes, the final result would have certainly been less disastrous to Spain than the complete emancipation of her American colonies." *

* Romero, *op. cit.* I have followed the authorised translation, for it expresses fairly well the author's meaning; but I am not at all satisfied with it. J. K. G.

Personally we are disposed to concur in the views of some eminent authorities who think that the French Revolution was in a measure a result of the successful effort of the British colonies in North America to secure their independence. Henry Thomas Buckle is one of those who hold this opinion.* But whether this is true or not, the French Revolution of the close of the eighteenth century, occurring so soon after the American War of Independence, 1775-1783, which gave a tremendous shock to the prevailing ideas of monarchical statesmen, must have exerted profound influence upon the minds of those natives of Spanish-America who had been able to acquire the education necessary to keep themselves informed as to the affairs of the world. The theory of the divine right of kings had been jarred to its very base, and the idea that the common people had some natural, inherent, and inalienable rights had been forced upon the rulers with such insistence that they could no longer ignore it.

These lessons were accepted in Spain with as poor a grace as in any part of the world, but they were the final blow to the principles upon which the rule of Spanish monarchy in America was based. The Spanish kings and their advisers never looked upon the American colonies, or any other of the over-seas possessions, as constituting part of a great empire. They were the private property of the monarch; to be exploited for his personal benefit, and no thought was taken of the lower orders, provided the revenues were kept up. If these fell short, drastic measures were promptly resorted to to show these slaves that they were derelict in their very first duty. This statement, when circumstances

* See "History of Civilisation in England." New York ed., 1895, pp. 666-8.

are fully considered, does not altogether contradict a previous one that the Spanish Government gave what it could to Mexico.

Although that Government, by an unaccountable inconsistency, permitted municipal government in the Spanish colonies, it seems never to have grasped the idea that in doing so it was laying the foundation of democratic institutions which were finally to prevail to the total overthrow of autocracy.

One of the strangest inconsistencies of the Spanish Government, was the wondrous and invidious distinction made between Spaniards born in Spain and Spaniards born in the American colonies. Even when the latter were the offspring of parents who were both pure Castilians, they were considered an inferior race and held to be almost as completely serfs or peons as were the children of native Indians.

In economic affairs, the Spanish Government far outstripped all other European nations in the policy adopted towards its American colonies. The disposition of European nations having possessions in the Western Hemisphere, was to treat them as absolute monopolies. But Spain went so far in this policy as to prohibit her colonies from raising or manufacturing any article grown or manufactured in the homeland. As a specific illustration of this unfair attitude, we may cite the law which forbade Mexicans (Spaniards and natives alike) to plant grapevines and olive-trees, lest the wine and oil which *might* be produced should hinder the Government's monopoly sale of these articles imported from Spain. So rigidly was this law enforced that in seasons when disaster prohibited the export from Spain, wine and oil presses were destroyed whenever discovered in Mexico, and their output thrown away, while the proprietors

were severely punished. A number of other parallel cases might be mentioned.

To carry out this monopolistic policy, nothing but natural products (in the raw state) and treasure (bullion or specie) was permitted to be sent out of the colonies. Seville was designated as the *one* port from which vessels might sail for the colonies. In Mexico, Vera Cruz on the Atlantic, and Acapulco on the Pacific, were the only ports of entry. Trade between the various colonies was forbidden. Between Spain and Mexico merchant vessels were allowed to sail but once or twice a year, in either direction, and then only when convoyed by a man-of-war, not so much for protection as to prevent evasion of the strict law.

Sufficient has been said to indicate clearly that the people of Mexico had good reason to wish to throw off the Spanish yoke; although much more might be written. Apparently, when the time came to make this effort, the Mexicans determined to rely upon themselves and to do their work at home. There does not seem to have been any secret society or political centre in Europe, appealing to the sympathies of people who would be likely to favour Mexico's aspirations.

Señor Romero is of the opinion that the dissensions of the Spanish royal family at Aranjuez, in 1808, contributed more than any other immediate cause to hasten the independence of the Spanish-American colonies. This disgraceful family quarrel and subservience to Napoleon, culminated in the Treaty of Bayonne, which transferred to the French Emperor all the rights and titles of Charles IV. to the throne of Spain and the Indies, including the American colonies.

The Spanish people, however, strenuously resisted the French invasion and established *Juntas* (a form of

popular assembly approximating a congress) in the mother-country and in the colonies, to rule in the name of Ferdinand VII. Through the *Juntas*, the people of the colonies secured a semblance of control over their own affairs, and began to realise that they could take care of themselves, and Mexico soon profited by this experience.

In most of the Spanish-American colonies, it was assumed that the appearance of independence had for its reason, organisation to repel a probable invasion by a French army, and to assist the mother-country in her efforts to resist further aggression by Napoleon. This was not the case in Mexico, however. José de Iturrigaray, viceroy from 1803 to 1808, by an error of judgment aroused the suspicions of the conservatives, who thought he contemplated declaring the independence of Mexico. They therefore deposed him, sent him back to Spain, and appointed his successor.

This object lesson was not thrown away upon the native Mexicans, who at once lost all respect for the representative of the Spanish king, and they argued, quite logically, that force, when successful, was justifiable and could be made to accomplish greater things for themselves than the mere change of a royal viceroy. At once there began a series of military revolutions that spread over a term of some sixty years. "The popular movement in all the other colonies *drifted* finally into a proclamation of independence, while in Mexico independence was proclaimed outright and without any semblance of submission to the Spanish crown; the cry of Hidalgo, the originator of Mexican independence, being, 'Long live independence! Down with the Spaniards!'"*

* Romero.

In Mexico, as in all the other Spanish-American colonies, the war for independence began in 1810, and it is considered to have ended on September 27, 1821, when Iturbide entered the capital with his victorious army, although the war had practically ended when the Spanish viceroy O'Donojú signed with Iturbide, at the city of Cordoba, on August 24, 1821, a treaty in which he recognised on behalf of the Spanish Government the independence of Mexico. It is a remarkable and deplorable fact that nearly all the leaders of the Spanish-American movement for independence were shot, either by the Spaniards or by their own people on account of domestic dissension. The list of those martyrs is long, and it teaches a sad lesson of strange inconsistency.

Independence having been achieved, the Republic's administration set itself vigorously to work to arrange the internal affairs of the country to conform to the new order.

The Western Hemisphere is divided into two continents by the Isthmus of Panama, which is only some thirty-six miles in width in a straight line at the narrowest place between tide-water in the Atlantic and in the Pacific. On this line the highest point, the apex of Culebra peak, is but about 290 feet above sea-level. But inasmuch as the equator is considerably to the south of the isthmus, a goodly slice of almost the broadest part of the South American continent lies in the northern hemisphere. The most southern point of the Republic of Panama is just a little above seven degrees north of the equator.

That part of the Western Hemisphere which we call North America is, again, naturally divided at the Isthmus of Tehuantepec into two very unequal sections: that is to say, Central America from the Isthmus of Pan-

ama to the Isthmus of Tehuantepec; and North America proper from Tehuantepec to the North Pole, perhaps. Mexico, then, is in both Central America and North America. The State of Chiapas and a part of Oaxaca, on the Pacific; the whole of the States of Yucatan, Campeche, and Tabasco, with a portion of Vera Cruz on the Gulf of Mexico, are geographically in Central America. We may say that one-third of geographical Central America is in the Republic of Mexico. The peculiar sensitiveness of some Spanish-Americans makes it rather risky to discuss such questions as these percentages. By doing so in an entirely unofficial manner before a social club in New York City some years ago, when he was Mexico's diplomatic representative at Washington, Señor Romero aroused the panicky suspicions of certain of his colleagues, diplomatic representatives of Central American Republics. These seemed to be convinced that such discussion and the comparisons adduced, argued that Mexico had most evil designs upon the autonomy of their respective States.

Our purpose is merely to show what an extensive geographical range Mexico has. From this to a consideration of physical variety is an easy and natural progress. The broken surface of the country made travelling in former times very difficult, nor is Mexico yet so completely opened up by highroads and railways as to be readily accessible in all parts. Hence the country was not well known, but a generation or two ago, even to the Mexicans themselves.

To travel for any considerable distance away from a few well-beaten tracks, it was necessary to make constant use of poor roads that were nothing more than mule trails which traversed regions where there were no comfortable inns. There was always great risk of attack

by highwaymen, because of the disturbed condition of the country, following revolutions and counter-revolutions that made more than one-half the population outlaws as to some party of politicians or officials, momentarily in power.

From this chaos, it will readily be understood, the evolution of the United States of Mexico was a very difficult matter. It was not until General Diaz organised his *rurales* that even a semblance of order and a suggestion of protection for life and property in the rural districts were established in the days of less than half a century ago.

These mounted police were (and are, in times when conditions are not such as have existed for nearly a year now *) an excellent body of intelligent men. One of the best evidences of the good work they accomplished is found in the fact that the outlaws and highwaymen had such a dread of them that the mere cry of "Rurales" would scatter the gangs of desperadoes; because an astonishing degree of license to "shoot first and try afterwards" was given these effective constables.

From 1880 until 1911, presidential elections in Mexico were an empty form. Constitutional provision having been made for the case, Porfirio Diaz was re-elected time and again by a ballot that was a mere farce. He so far assumed the power of a dictator as to appoint his own Cabinet, the other important members of the administration, and even the governors of the independent States. All this was a perversion of the principles of that popular representation upon which the Republic is supposed to be based.

That Diaz was a blessing to his country cannot be denied, but whether his downfall was due to the fact

* The summer of 1912.

that he had survived his usefulness, or that national and inevitable opposition had grown too strong, remains to be proved. There never was a time when all Mexicans loved him; but the fear which took the place of love with many of his fellow-countrymen, aided him in governing Mexico with that iron hand which centuries of history have seemed to demonstrate is the only one to rule the country.

If the rule of a dictator is the very antithesis of a republican form of government, no one acquainted with conditions in Mexico thirty odd years ago and who knows what they were when Diaz was dethroned, will hesitate for a moment in saying that it was his rule which made Mexico what it ought to be to-day. He understood as no other publicist ever had done, how essential to Mexico's substantial progress was foreign capital. He set himself to the task of making the laws such as should induce foreign investors to avail themselves of good opportunities; and he tried to secure physical protection. Naturally, some of his fellow-citizens were loud in their declarations that his efforts were partial, and discriminated against Mexicans, but we think that in no important case has this charge been substantiated.

Diaz suppressed crime with an iron hand, even if the means to accomplish that desirable end were sometimes harsh to the verge of brutality. A strike occurred in the cotton-mills district of the State of Orizaba. The strikers were so foolish as to display the red flag of the anarchists; they destroyed considerable property, and killed some workmen who refused to join the strike. Diaz promptly ordered a regiment or two of regular troops into the district; these arrested a number of the strike leaders and put a stop to the outbreak. One day, over two hundred of the rioters were in prison; the next

day they had disappeared. It was useless to ask questions about them, but the fact had a most salutary effect throughout the whole country.

Here and there Indians break out and "go on the war-path," although they do not indulge in precisely the same scalping performance that Americans associate with that phrase. The *rurales* appear, seize the ringleaders and shoot them on the spot, without the formality of even a "drum-head court-martial." That is the end of the disturbance in this particular spot. It is a rough way to treat people; but it seems to be the only manner of handling such Mexican problems until education has become so general and so efficient as to change the complexion of the whole body politic.

With such tremendous difficulties facing those who attempted to organise the United States of Mexico, and considering that the people themselves were the greatest difficulty of all, it is not necessary to state that the task of getting the whole machinery of government into good running order was one that would have taxed the ability of the wisest statesman in the world; and a century ago there were not any of this order in Mexico; that there have been since, is doubtful. The result was precisely what any careful student of governments and political institutions would have predicted. This statement must not be taken by sensitive Mexicans to mean that we share in the almost universal opinion that they are constitutionally disposed to fight, and do so without any plausible reason or serious cause.

There is a certain philosophy in the civil wars of Mexico: wars that pretty well fill up the three periods into which native historians divide them. That is to say, the wars of independence, from 1810 to 1821; the revolutionary period from 1821 to 1855; the civil wars due

to conflicting views of leaders as to essentials for domestic reform, from 1856 quite to the present day. The second period includes the foreign war with the United States of America; and the third the important semi-foreign war due to Maximilian's effort.

Some of the important episodes of these three epochs have been sufficiently discussed; but there are a few which demand a moment's attention here, because of the tremendous influence they exerted upon the people. From the very beginning of the Spanish invasion, the clergy, who were always numerically strong in all the expeditions, gave themselves heart and soul to the conversion of the natives to the Roman Catholic faith. After the complete subjugation of the Aztec monarchy, this process was, more than before, supported by the full power of the Government. Whether it was successful in obtaining really sincere conversions, does not need to be decided here. Apparently the Indians did generally embrace Christianity, and certainly the power of the Roman Catholic Church became something astonishing.

During the terrible struggle of the third period, called by Mexicans "the war of reform," Benito Juarez, president, either *ad interim* or constitutional from 1857 to the day of his death, July 18, 1872, issued certain laws that were intended to destroy the political power of the Romish clergy. Church property was seized and sold at a nominal price to the occupants previously holding under lease from the Church. The Church was debarred from holding real estate, in order to prevent accumulation in the future. In itself, this was sufficient provocation for interminable struggles, and to that act may surely be charged practically all the confusion that has almost torn to pieces the Mexican Republic at so many times since.

It would be too optimistic to say that the causes which brought about the civil wars in Mexico no longer exist. The contradiction of that statement, made by an eminent Mexican diplomatist more than a decade ago, has been demonstrated to us during the last year. They do exist and will continue to so do until Mexico's fifteen millions of people have been taught to realise their responsibility to the State and their duty to one another.

As a nation, in the term of years, Mexico is but a very young country, much younger, in fact, than her northern neighbour and, in a sense, her prototype, and to measure her development by the standard which may properly be applied to older or more stable States, is manifestly unreasonable. Optimists thought that even when Diaz's guiding hand was withdrawn, peace and order would continue to prevail. They were mistaken; yet that remark does not of necessity mean that order will not come out of the existing chaos.

CHAPTER X

MEXICO FOR THE ARCHÆOLOGIST, THE ANTIQUARIAN, THE COLLECTOR OF CURIOS

PERHAPS we make an unnecessarily fine distinction when we suggest separate discussions of Mexican archæology *and* antiquities; for an archæologist must find it difficult to *determine* much about the long-ago civilisation of that country from an examination of what remains of architectural monuments and other objects that manifestly are of great antiquity.

The antiquarian in Mexico will still find much to reward his search for that which possesses interest rather as curiosities than for their inherent or archæological importance. The modern collector of curios, with which to embellish his own home, or to lend them to a museum in order that many may derive benefit, will still find that the Mexican field has not been exhausted by any means.

Since the most interesting archæological remains in Mexico are those connected with the Mayas, it is well, at first, to say a little of what is known of those people. The Maya-Quiché family constitute a well-marked linguistic group of American Indians, and representatives are still to be found in southern and southeastern Mexico, as well as in other parts of Central America.

When the Spaniards first came, the stock was divided into a number of tribes. They had well-built cities, dressed stone being extensively used in their architecture. Their hieroglyphics or pictographic records were sometimes painted on prepared bark, at others they were cut

in more permanent stone. A few of these records have been translated, but most of the original pictographs have defied the efforts of scientists to decipher them satisfactorily. - No Mexican "Rosetta Stone" has yet enabled us to read back, consecutively and connectedly, the records and to determine the conditions of civilisation in ancient times in America, as we can do in Egypt.

It is doubtless true that the Maya races were once united and that in Yucatan they were ruled by a single king who lived at Mayapan, the ruins of which are yet to be traced, twenty miles south of Merida, the present capital of Yucatan. Ethnic connection between the Mayas and the interesting Toltecs is claimed by competent investigators, and this subject has been already alluded to in these pages.

Scattered over the central and southern portions of Mexico there are some of the most ancient ruins of America which compare in their remarkable features with those in any other part of the world. The northern districts are rather surprisingly deficient in these remains. There are many surmises as to the time when the buildings, whose ruins alone now remain, were built and about the people who erected them. Some contend that they are relics of the "lost tribes of Israel," and others maintain stoutly that their antiquity is such as to show clearly that the civilisation of all the Asiatic peoples went forth from Central America. As to age or builders, our knowledge can never be positive.

The most important of those archæological remains are those of Uximal and Chichen Itza in the State of Yucatan, Comalcalco in Tabasco, Palenquè in Chiapas, Teotihuacan and Cholula in Puebla and Tlaxcala, and Nitla and Monte Alban in Oaxaca. A glance at the map will show that all these States of Mexico, with the pos-

sible exceptions of Puebla and Tlaxcala, are within the territory assigned to the Mayas: some of the places themselves are not indicated because they are too insignificant.

About twenty-five miles northeast of Mexico City, and easily reached by rail, are the remains of an ancient city, scattered over an area of something like a mile or two square. This is called Teotihuacan (we have already just alluded to it). These ruins are the most remarkable in the country. To the north of some absolute ruins that are now nothing more than rubbish, there stands a truncated pyramid whose four sides were carefully built to face the cardinal points of the compass. This structure is called the Pyramid of the Moon. About half a mile south of it is another, the Pyramid of the Sun, similar in form and built with equal precision as to its faces. Its height is 223 feet and its base lines from east to west measure 735 feet; the north and south lines being somewhat less. Connecting the two pyramids, evidently for some specific purpose related to religious services, or possibly royal processions, is a broad, straight street, known as *Micoatl*, "The Road of the Dead," which starts from the circular plaza immediately south of the Pyramid of the Moon and leads to the Pyramid of the Sun. It is continued on a short distance south of the latter to a deep, water-worn ravine. On both sides of this avenue there are parallel terraces.

In age, these great pyramids are assumed to antedate, by a long period of time, the civilisation that the Spaniards found when first they arrived. As examples of what was accomplished by prehistoric builders and workmen, they easily rival the similar works which we know to have stood in the Nile Valley for over four thousand years. As is the case with these latter, it is now im-

possible to determine precisely what mechanical apparatus the builders used to cut the immense blocks of volcanic rock of which these pyramids are built, or how they raised them into place. We are told that the ancient Mexicans knew little (if anything) about the use of metals, and that their cutting tools were fashioned from chips or flakes of obsidian. This fact increases our wonder when we contemplate works of this character and magnitude.

There are other mound-like remains scattered over the wide plain. One of these mounds of broken lava and clay laid in cement and faced with mortar or stucco, highly polished, and painted red and white, was opened by Désiré Charnay* who found what he called a "palace," having two large halls and a number of small rooms. "In 1886 Señor Don Leopoldo Batres made an excavation in one of the mounds, and found two polychrome frescoes painted on the wall of the building which was laid bare. The question is naturally asked, how these monuments come to be covered? Was it by an earthquake or by the hands of the builders themselves? Señor Batres inclines to the latter view, as he found the roofs of the houses perfectly preserved, while the interior of the rooms was in every case filled with stones neatly fitted into the spaces, and joined with a clayish cement to form a compact mass. His conclusion as to the pyramids is, that they are two great Mexican temples erected to two old Mexican divinities."†

Prescott states that the monuments of San Juan Teotihuacan, with the exception of the temple at Cholula,

* See "Ancient Cities of the New World," being an account of travels in Mexico and Central America from 1857 to 1882.

† Romero.

are probably the most ancient ruins in Mexico. According to Aztec traditions, those people found them when they arrived in the country. Teotihuacan (i.e., *the habitation of the gods*) was then a large city, a rival of Tula, the great Toltec capital; it is now a miserable little village.

The two principal pyramids were dedicated to *Tona-tiuh*, the Sun, and *Metzli*, the Moon. The former, much the larger, is 682 feet long at the base, and 180 feet high. As the great pyramid of Cheops, Egypt, is 728 feet at the base and 448 feet high, the Mexican does not suffer much from comparison. The Teotihuacan pyramids were divided into four storeys, of which three are now discernible, while vestiges of the intermediate gradations are nearly effaced. "In fact, time has dealt so roughly with them, and the materials have been so much displaced by the treacherous vegetation of the tropics, muffling up with its flowery mantle the ruin which it causes, that it is not easy to discern at once the pyramidal form of the structures."

One visitor declares that it is necessary to look at the ruins from a particular viewpoint and with some little faith, in order to detect the pyramidal form at all; while another was quite as positive that the general figure of the square is as perfect as the great pyramid of Egypt.

An opening was found in the smaller pyramid, leading to a narrow gallery and terminating in two pits or wells that may have been tombs. "That these monuments were dedicated to religious uses, there is no doubt, and it would be only conformable to the practice of antiquity in the Eastern continent that they should have served as tombs as well as temples." On the top of the Pyramid of the Moon there are remains of stone walls, indicating the existence, in times long past, of a building



HALL OF THE MONOLITHS, MITLA

TO THE
AMERICAN

of considerable size and strength: there are no such relics on the top of the Sun pyramid. Legend has it that in the temple on the latter pyramid, there was a huge statue of the Sun-god. Over the breast was a plate of gold and silver, which reflected the first rays of the rising suns. Ixtlilxochitl, early in the seventeenth century, and Boturini, in the eighteenth century, both say they saw remains of this statue; but it had disappeared entirely in 1757.

North of the Pyramid of the Moon, there is an enormous monolith. It represents a woman with a peculiar head-dress and a necklace of four strings of beads. It may interest archæologists to try to determine if this was the idol formerly worshipped in the temple which surmounted the pyramid. The ploughshare still turns up, in the fields around these Teotihuacan ruins, many miniature heads made of clay; they never have more than the neck attached to the head, and in this respect they differ from idols and the ornamentation of vases and kindred articles.

The great pyramid of Cholula, connected with an attempt of the Aztecs to exterminate the Spaniards while making their first march to Tenochtitlan, is eight miles from the city of Puebla. This place, which owes its existence to a miracle, was originally called *Puebla de los Angeles* ("the City of the Angels"). How much we lose of romance by our habit of abbreviation for the sake of economising breath!

Puebla is one hundred and twenty-nine miles by rail from Mexico City, in a direction a little south of east, and it is the capital of the large state of the same name. Cholula is west of the city, and the mound that is all that remains of the pyramid, covers some twenty acres. It is now about one hundred and seventy feet high.

The pyramid, restored, has been often described and represented in pictures. Humboldt gives a full account of it, and Prescott leads us to suppose that it was surmounted by a temple dedicated to Quetzalcoatl.

It was manifestly an artificial structure built of sun-dried brick, in two sections, the first seventy-one feet high, the second sixty-six feet. The base was originally one thousand feet square; but the material has become so badly weathered, and the whole mound is so covered with trees and shrubbery, that it now looks like a low, natural hill. The fact that obsidian knives and arrow-heads have been found, leads one to think that the priests abandoned the gentle service which Quetzalcoatl taught, and reverted to the bloody human sacrifices of the Aztec cult.

Uxmal is near the city of Merida, the capital of the State of Yucatan. The ruins here, as well as those at Chichen Itza in the same state, are credited to the Mayas. So, too, are those in the little village of Palenquè, in the State of Chiapas. These latter were unknown to the Spaniards until about the middle of the eighteenth century; and it is evident that the place, as a religious centre, had been abandoned before the Conquest. A remarkable stone, covered with hieroglyphics and known as the Palenquè Tablet, was made the subject of an interesting archæological monograph, written by Dr. Charles Rau, then curator of antiquities in the National Museum, Washington, U.S.A., but the hieroglyphics have never been satisfactorily interpreted.*

There are some very interesting ruins near the Indian town of Mitla, about twenty miles east of Oaxaca, the capital city of the State of the same name. These are the remains of temples supposed to have been built by

* See Smithsonian Institution publications.

the Zapotec Indians, ancestors of the present inhabitants who still speak the Zapotec dialect, as well as Spanish. The Spanish priest, Burgo, who accompanied the Conquerors, gave the first description of these ruins; but we refer the reader to Vivien Cory's work* for the full account, which is too long to be inserted here. The stones used in building these edifices are of astonishing size. Many small clay images, similar to those found at Teotihuacan, have been discovered here, and suggest a connection. Some show the peculiar Mongolian eyes, with the upper lid drawn down, giving the so-called slant; others seem to suggest the Ethiopian; and many are of very different race types from anything which the native Mexicans could have known within historic times.

What has been said gives a suggestion merely of what there is in Mexico to interest the archæologist. Even the places which have been mentioned have not yet been worked out, and there are many others that are almost virgin. It may be stated that the Mexican Government is very liberal in granting permission to carry on archæological research; wisely asserting its prior right to any unusually good "finds." It is itself giving much attention to the preservation and restoration of ancient buildings. Unfortunately, in Mexico as elsewhere, these precautionary measures were not taken until after a great deal of valuable material had been used for base purposes, and beautiful old structures wantonly destroyed that the materials might be used in building something "modern," either residential or industrial.

The stranger antiquarian in Mexico will, almost as a matter of course, begin his investigations with a visit to the National Museum. This occupies a wing of the

* See Bibliography.

National Palace, intended as the official residence of the President. Diaz did not live in this pretentious edifice; he made his home in a much smaller house facing a street leading off from the Central Plaza around which are the Palace and other public buildings. What the President of the United States of Mexico will do when the present troubles are ended and the Government settles down in peace, it is impossible to say; but knowing the fondness of the average Mexican for pomp and ceremony, it is very likely that Diaz's modesty will not be emulated.

In the National Museum there is a really fine collection of antiquities; a few of the Aztec picture-writings that were saved from the bigoted, fanatical destruction wrought by Zumarraga; there are interesting specimens of the weapons and shields used by the Aztecs and the older Toltecs, as well as utensils devoted to more peaceful purposes. Of jewels, ornaments, idols, and a thousand other relics of antiquity, the number is great and the material for study most abundant.

The collection of portraits of men who have been famous in Mexico's history since the Conquest, is interesting but hardly to be considered an antiquarian prize. The exhibit of weapons and armour used by the Conquerors, comes in the same category, as does that of costumes which display a certain chronological development.

The great Stone of Sacrifice, which stood in the Temple of the Sun — but a short distance from the site of the Museum — is installed near the entrance. It is a rough disk, covered with intricate carving; along the rim is a series which show the priests dragging the unfortunate victims to be sacrificed as an offering to the Sun-god. The fierce battle waged by the handful of



A CORNER OF THE RUINS, MITLA

ALABAMA

Spaniards around this horrible stone, against a great host of Aztec warriors and priests, when the temple was sacked and burnt, emphasises the tremendous task the Spaniards undertook. When the Conquest was accomplished, the Spanish priests buried the stone and it was not discovered until 1791, when some excavations for sanitary purposes were being made for the cathedral erected on this very spot.

It is not inappropriate that an image of Huitzilo-pochtli, the god of War, stands near the Sacrificial Stone. This is an upright block of stone: the deity is shown with snake teeth and a fringe of serpents' heads falling over the breast like a horrid ornament. The lower part of the stone projects like a shelf, and it is supposed that the still pulsating heart of the human sacrifice was thrown here, after the priest had torn it from the victim on the Stone of Sacrifice.

The Aztec Calendar Stone is another object of great antiquarian interest. This is in the same gallery as that in which the last two objects are installed. The consensus of opinion agrees as to the purpose of this elaborate work; yet the many efforts to decipher thoroughly the carvings have not been exhaustively complete. This statement is made with all appreciation of Mr. W. W. Blake's remarkably interesting explanation. The Calendar Stone also was buried in the Plaza, and re-discovered, with the Stone of Sacrifice, in 1790. Mexican antiquarians say that both these huge blocks were taken from the Coyoacan quarries, at a date which corresponds to our year 1478 A.D. The task, for men without any mechanical appliances to lessen their burden, must have been a stupendous one. It is said that when the stones were in place, more than seven hundred captives were sacrificed at the celebration.

Having satisfied himself with a study of what the capital affords, and its ethnology, its old churches, with other buildings and their associations which will detain him for some time, the antiquarian will find in the States of Central and Southern Mexico plenty of material that has not yet been described or edited. The study of customs which survive—in fact or by traces—amongst some of the remoter tribes of Indians in the mountains, still requires prosecution before they disappear altogether. There are, too, games and pastimes of which our knowledge is not yet completely satisfactory. The subject of old-time burial customs has not been exhausted. Is the marked likeness, which some of the Aztec idols in all parts of Mexico bear to certain Egyptian figures, nothing more than an accident? Having asked the question, we must confess our inability to suggest how a scientist is to move in attempting to answer it.

The Church of San Francisco, at Tlaxcala, the oldest in America, its foundation having been laid in 1521, is an interesting spot for the antiquarian to visit, even if its history has been pretty well written. There are, too, many other churches which will attract him. In this connection, it is proper to mention the painting by Murillo, "The Assumption." This is in the sacristy of the cathedral at Guadalajara, capital of the State bearing the same name. It is said that an offer of \$75,000 has been refused for this authentic picture. In 1864, when French troops captured the city, they tried to get possession of this picture as a trophy to hang on the wall of the Louvre gallery; but it was hidden away successfully by the priests in charge, although they were promised \$25,000 to divulge its hiding place.

But another and even more interesting object of fine

art antiquity, is the picture of the "Entombment of Christ," painted by Titian and of undisputed authenticity. It is in the old church at Tzintzuntzan, on the shore of Lake Patzcuaro, Michoacan, and was presented to the Convent of San Francisco by Philip II., King of Spain 1556-98. The old church is almost in ruins, yet the Indians are not willing to have it repaired or reconstructed, and they worship their picture as if it were endowed with miraculous power. It is said that an Archbishop of Mexico once offered \$50,000 for the painting, but this was indignantly refused. Francis Hopkinson Smith, the engineer-artist-author, in his "A White Umbrella in Mexico," gives an entertaining and exciting account of his experience when making a sketch of the picture. He succeeded through a clever ruse; but his effort nearly had a tragic ending, his life being for a moment in peril just because he had dared to lay his hand on the canvas.

Edward King, Viscount Kingsborough, gave a good part of his life to the study of Mexican antiquities. We have the result of his labours in nine, and a portion of a tenth, folio volumes with wonderful illustrations. Incidentally, it may be stated that he is one of those who have attempted to prove that it was to Mexico the "lost tribes of Israel" went. It may be added that his reproductions of Aztec pictographs show that while those people often group their numeral dots or tiny circles in multiples of five, there is no fixed rule in this numeration.

But even the monumental work of this investigator has not exhausted the subject of the "Antiquities of Mexico." There are few antiquarians, it is certain, who have the means at their disposal to carry on research as Kingsborough did. Yet this fact need not deter

others from prosecuting further work in what is still an unexhausted quarry.

The average visitor to Mexico, who does not go with some fixed plan for industrial or commercial exploitation to which he will give his whole time and undivided attention, will find it a most seductive place in which to pick up "curios." Besides the occasional antiquity that will appeal to such a collector because of beauty, novelty, association, or age, there are innumerable things of more modern make which are most tempting.

It often adds something to the sentimental value of a "find" in ceramics, if the collector sees the article "turned" before his very eyes on a potter's wheel. This gratification may be had at various places in Mexico: for example, at San Antone, in the Cuernavaca district of the State of Morelos. The natives make the famous red Cuernavaca ware, and while their methods may be primitive, yet they produce vessels of such graceful shapes that they might have come from Greece or Rome. They do this work on an old-fashioned potter's wheel, turned by the hand frequently, and their other accessories are a bit of broken glass with which the surface is finally smoothed, and a horsehair to cut off the top sharply and to detach the finished article from the wheel.

Attractive pottery is also produced in many other parts of Mexico. Guadalajara is one: here the potters make, in addition to useful articles, most fascinating little figures which represent the different phases of Mexican life. Aguas Calientes is another place, and these two are among the most famous and accessible. A few dollars will secure a "collection."

The writer has often wondered why greater use is not made of the Mexican "water-cooler," or something



A VILLAGE NEAR THE RUINS OF XOCHICALCO, NEAR CUERNAVACA

THE
ANNALS
OF THE
AMERICAN
PSYCHOLOGICAL
ASSOCIATION

similar thereto, now that the hygienic prejudice against ice-water is growing. This is, usually, a round, deep, broad jar suspended in a netting. It is made of slightly porous clay, so that the little water which oozes through may be evaporated. When hung in the air, this evaporation, even on the hottest day, lowers the temperature of the water inside the jar until it is entirely palatable.

It is scarcely necessary to dilate here upon the attractive articles wrought in gold or silver that are to be bought in Mexico, because so many of them have been brought away and shown to envious friends or exhibited in museums. Yet the supply will never be exhausted, and the skilful workmen are constantly bringing forth something new, or reproductions of the attractive old.

It is possible that in the State of Guerrero, the visitor may come into possession of one of the beautiful prehistoric objects made of gold, an idol, perhaps, or an amulet, or simply something for personal adornment. There are so many ruined buildings in this state which have not been exhaustively explored, that there are possibilities of getting some little treasure which shows how wonderfully skilful were the workmen who are declared to have been old hands at their craft long, long before the Aztecs came into the country.

To write of Mexico without any reference to the beautiful precious stone resembling petrified woods, that has been given the name "Mexican Onyx," would be a strange omission. The material is much used in churches, public buildings, and residences for interior decoration, as well as table-tops, etc., just as it has been in the United States of America. Smaller pieces, cut into readily portable articles of all sorts and kinds, may be procured in the City of Puebla, perhaps more satisfactorily than in any other place.

We fear the feminine curio-hunter will not thank us for saying that the famous drawnwork in linen is practically a thing of the past. The native women of Aguas Calientes, who formerly did this, now find more remunerative employment in factories or at other work. But the genuine Mexican drawnwork deservedly held a lofty place in the estimation of all lovers of the beautiful. One costume which was made in the town of Aguas Calientes and intended for exhibition "took nine years to complete, three hundred expert needlewomen being employed on it." It had no seams, was of exquisite design, and was valued at two thousand dollars.

But truth compels us to say that nearly all of the "real" Mexican drawnwork, now procurable by visitors, is "made in Germany," only it is not so labeled, and it is sold to tourists as the work of native needlewomen, made from domestic materials. The stranger must be most careful when buying a showy *sarape*, so effective for draperies, because most of those offered for sale are made in Germany.

It is most improbable that a visitor can now even see one of the Aztec blankets, woven from the fibre of a certain species of cactus, called *ixtle* and of which the famous *tilma* in the shrine of Guadalupe is made. If great good fortune should enable the stranger to secure one of these blankets, the opportunity had better be promptly seized.

The reference to the Guadalupe *tilma* recalls the legend connected with it. In 1591 the Virgin Mary appeared miraculously to an Indian on the hill of Guadalupe, and bade him tell the bishop to build on that spot a church in her honour. Twice this happened, with certain variations, and the bishop remained incredulous. The third time, however, the Virgin told the Indian to gather some

miraculous flowers that had sprung up on the previously barren hillside and carry them to the bishop. The man obeyed and wrapped the flowers carefully in his *tilma*, blanket. When he opened the *tilma* before the bishop and delivered the message that third time, the flowers had disappeared, but on the *tilma* was a beautifully painted picture of the Virgin. The church was built on the spot indicated, and the marvelous picture installed in a tabernacle of gold, silver, and plate glass. It is a fable, of course, and yet no one has ever been able to say just how the picture was done or what pigments were used. That the picture is an antique is undisputed, and the colouring is still remarkably fresh.

CHAPTER XI

MEXICO FOR THE TOURIST AND THE SPORTSMAN

SWITZERLAND seems to be the criterion by which the natural and artificial features of all other countries are measured, when we discuss their attractiveness for tourists. We speak of "The Switzerland of America," even if the consensus of opinion has not yet determined just where it is; of "The Switzerland of Africa," amongst those mighty mountains in the eastern part of that continent, so close to the equator; of "The Switzerland of India," Kashmir and "The Hills"; or of "The Switzerland of Siberia," in Transbaikalia.

This is not alone because of Switzerland's physical features, although the charm of these is frankly admitted; but largely because the Swiss Government has displayed such great wisdom in making the country attractive in artificial ways. The proprietors of hotels, and of summer and winter resorts, have co-operated with State and Cantonal officials in this matter.

Switzerland, however, in the sense of being a "happy hunting-ground" for tourist and health-seeker, is rather a designation than a strict geographical term of definition; because the Austrian Tyrol, as well as the Italian side of the Alps and the Lake Region, must be taken as parts of that comprehensive Switzerland for which we are disposed to contend. This region, then, is so located as to be able to draw upon the thickly populated lower countries on all sides for its patronage; and means of getting into its every nook and corner are now so ample

that the patronage is generous and remunerative. Yet even so, every succeeding year is marked by some new, often stupendous, plan for increasing these facilities of access and lodging.

Besides, as has been intimated, the purses of all classes of patrons are considered in arranging the scale of charges. It is possible for people of very moderate means to enjoy all the benefits of this health-restoring, health-giving region; while for those who deliberately choose to be extravagant in their demand for luxuries, rarely necessary, hotels are provided with accessories sufficient to satisfy the demands of the most reckless spendthrift. This is probably not due to any inherent altruism on the part of those landlords and proprietors, but is rather due to respect for laws, rules, and regulations that are strictly enforced.

There are, however, many other regions on this globe which would be quite as popular, were they only as accessible and as well equipped for the purposes of recuperation and recreation as is Switzerland. There will come a time when distances have so shrunk that the Himalayas will offer to the tourist many opportunities equal to those of Switzerland, both physical and personal. "Bleak" Siberia, too, possesses wonderful possibilities. Of North America, it is hazardous to speak with any semblance of prophecy; because, while there are the natural features in plenty, the Government — whether American or British — has not yet evinced any disposition to curb the rapacity of proprietors, who will not see that it is to their own interest to cater to the pecuniary possibilities of all classes of visitors.

Mexico is one of the countries which possess great possibilities for the tourist; and anyone who knows the land may be pardoned if he displays much enthusiasm

when discussing it in this aspect. It is really a Wonderland, because, let the visitor approach it from whatever direction he will, there is nothing in the first contact which holds a hint of the possibilities of the interior. The journey by train from the north, involves the crossing of Texas, or New Mexico, or Arizona, and no sane person can truthfully say that this trip is scenically attractive, however instructive, novel, and economically interesting it may be.

All the American railways which connect at the frontier with Mexican lines, traverse level sections that are not attractive to the tourists, and the eastern lines traverse similar country for some distance after Mexico has been entered. Only in the extreme northwest, in the State of Sonora, does the railway quickly plunge into a mountainous region, after crossing the boundary, and climb upwards to altitudes that are refreshing, and into a region of physical variety. The eastern lines that converge at the city of Monterey, State of Nuevo Leon, are not very long in the level valley, and these, too, bring an agreeable scenic change fairly promptly.

But the central line, along the great interior Valley of Mexico, is very slow in climbing up to an elevation which brings relief from the sameness and bleakness of the lower plains. We are now writing of Mexico as a winter resort, because it is as such that most tourists think of it; the attractions in summer will be discussed a little later, when it will be admitted, we think, that Mexico may in time rival Switzerland at both seasons.

The winter visitor who approaches Mexico from the sea, is likely to receive a first impression that is even less favourable than is the one which has just been mentioned. This statement is, however, not strictly applicable to the west coast, because Acapulco and



LAKE MINATITLAN, VERA CRUZ

ALPHABET

Manzanillo have picturesque surroundings. On the east coast, there are for the present, certainly, and probably for some time to come, but two ports of entry for the foreign tourist, Vera Cruz and Tampico. Of the former, it may be said that there is little change to be noted by the approaching stranger from the deck of his steamer, from the description given by Mr. Carson: "A long line of flat, sandy coast with many sandbars stretching seawards over which the surf was breaking. The land, covered with scrubby bushes and here and there a melancholy group of cocoanut palms, lay forlorn and desolate under a dark sky." The harbour and the town have been greatly improved since that was written, a few years ago.

The incoming tourist at either of these points should prepare to be disappointed when he lands. For so many of the days, when the few steamers from foreign ports are due at either Vera Cruz or Tampico, are marked by the horrid "Northers." These are the fierce winds which sweep along the coast in winter (although their influence is felt far inland). They seem to have had their beginning in the far-away north polar regions, and to have lost little of their icy-cold character while crossing the intervening "States." Certain it is that they play havoc with navigation and coast property, are depressing to the stranger, and seem to freeze the natives to the very marrow. But perhaps this seemingly unfortunate first impression upon the tourist is, after all, a wise dispensation to make the change, which speedily comes after landing and getting, literally, *up* into the interior, all the more attractive.

Tampico, the other Gulf of Mexico seaport, is a different looking place from other Mexican cities. One noticeable variation is seen in the roofs of the buildings;

many of these are pitched and gabled, instead of being flat as is the typical one. Tampico has a population rapidly approaching the quarter of a million mark, and it has already outstripped Vera Cruz as a port of entry for merchandise from the United States, Europe, and the West Indies. Hundreds of cargo steamers enter and clear each month, and the docks are fitted to receive the largest ocean-going craft. A good idea of the importance which the Mexican Government attaches to this place, may be had from the fact that a sum of over three million dollars was spent in building the Custom House and a pier at which five large steamers can be worked at the same time.

The town is at the mouth of the Panuco River, which is joined, a little above Tampico, by the Tameso. Along these streams, small cargo boats may pass for a long distance into the interior, and inasmuch as the scenery is very attractive, being characteristically tropical, a trip on one of these boats is not a bad experiment for a leisurely tourist to make. The actual harbour is some distance below the city proper, at the suburb of La Barra, where there is excellent surf-bathing.

Whether he goes to Mexico by land or sea, the tourist will make his first human acquaintance with Customs officials; and, of course, when the American tourist returns to his own country, he will have a similar experience with the United States officials — the same in kind, but vastly different in degree. It is still a disgrace and a stultification of the pretences of the great United States of America, that this ordeal of passing through the Customs inspection should be such a humiliating one. Why, because the heavy import duties have tempted some to try evasion, should all be assumed to be attempting a like fraud? The comparison brings

forth the same unpleasant picture, and puts the United States in the same invidious position, no matter what other country is chosen to make it. Even Russia, where the actual inspection is likely to be as strict as in America, does not treat every person as if he were a convicted smuggler. Mexico certainly does not. A respectable looking, well-behaved tourist is assumed not to be attempting to defraud the government of a few cents in duty, and the examination of luggage, although thorough, is done with some consideration for the stranger. There is none of the "Step lively! Unlock this trunk in a hurry!"

We shall take it for granted that the tourist has arrived at Vera Cruz, and elected to stay overnight, before taking a train on the wonderful Mexican Railway by way of Orizaba (the true Aztec name being *Ahauiali-zapan*, "joy in the waters") for the capital. He will, unless he is so fortunate as to have a friend living in Vera Cruz who insists upon "putting him up," go to a hotel. This will prove a novel experience; but novelty is precisely what our typical tourist is seeking. There is not quite so great a difference between the absolutely "first-class" Mexican hotel and the hopelessly poor one, as there is between the best and the poorest of the establishments we call "hotels" in America or Europe. The differences in minor details may be ignored, because in essentials all the hotels of Mexico are pretty much alike.

In some of the larger cities, the capital particularly, hotels have been expressly built for the purpose of providing semi-modern accommodations; but not yet has it seemed desirable to the proprietors, not to say essential, to equip them with a satisfactory heating-plant, or stoves, or fireplaces; consequently, there are days in

winter when the tourist is anything but comfortable, and many nights when the visitor is absolutely forced to go to bed "with the chickens" just to get warm.

It is not at all surprising that the Mexican hotels are arranged in much the same way as their Spanish prototype, although it may be said that the former are generally cleaner and neater than the latter, if the testimony of travellers in both countries may be depended upon. Even when, as is frequently the case in the smaller towns, the hotel is merely a residence somewhat altered to adapt it to the requirements of the new use, or a convent transformed, there is little variation in exterior or interior. The front wall is right on the sidewalk (the arcade is an innovation), the lower windows small and strongly barred; the upper ones larger (not infrequently projecting in quite a Moorish fashion) and either barred or filled with lighter framework and fitted with jalousies.

In the middle of the façade is a large entrance, closed, at times, by a grille gate. This opens into the *patio*, courtyard, in the centre of which there is a fountain surrounded by palms, flowering bushes, etc., in wooden or earthenware pots. In a good many hotels, the "office" gives onto the entrance, and here the visitors' carriage stops that the "fare" may arrange for his room. When this has been satisfactorily accomplished, the luggage is handed over to the porter, the carriage circles the fountain in the *patio* and drives away.

The different floors of the hotel all have a broad balcony around the *patio* and from that the rooms are entered. Rooms are sometimes arranged *en suite*, the sleeping-room on the *patio* side, and through it one passes to the sitting-room, which looks out upon the street or whatever may be "next door" on either side or at the rear of the hotel. A stone staircase passes up from

floor to floor at one side of the *patio*. There is a comforting sense of security against fire in the stone or concrete floors, the stone stairway, and the almost entire absence of woodwork in the construction of these buildings; and yet — when the stranger thinks of Mexico's earthquake history — that "comfort" is a little shaken. But destructive earthquakes, involving loss of life, are not so frequent as to deter a would-be tourist.

For each floor (we are speaking of the small hotel) there is a *mozo* — a man, and very often he is quite old, too — who is the Mexican equivalent of the "Boy" in Asia and elsewhere. He is chambermaid, boots, hall-porter, bell-boy, and messenger, and in all the large hotels of the principal cities, this *mozo* has picked up enough English to be extremely useful to the newcomer who dares not yet trust his own Spanish.

As a rule there are restaurants connected with the better class hotels in the cities; but not so in the provincial hotels. Mention of restaurants brings up the subject of eating, which is, perhaps, the most unsatisfactory phase of life for the tourist in Mexico: the only unsatisfactory one, in fact.

The writer's experience, beginning in 1866 and renewed at intervals since, is confirmed by the statement of nearly all who have told about food for the "gringo" (stranger, American especially) in Mexico. When one of the most enthusiastic pro-Mexico writers of recent years, Percy F. Martin,* says that the alimentary entertainment given at the Chapultepec Café is the very best, for Americans and Europeans, to be had in the whole country, and yet is compelled to modify his enthusiasm with the statement that although the *cuisine* is undoubtedly good, it is not sufficiently varied, one realises that this

*See Bibliography.

problem of catering to the palates of the strangers has not yet received from Mexicans the attention one would expect.

Fish and fruit are abundant and may be had at many cafés and restaurants, the former well-cooked and all nicely served, but soups, joints, and the vegetables that the Anglo-Saxon likes are very difficult to get; while *entremets* and pastry which conforms to his standard are next to impossible. It may be that the tourist will come to like the *chili-con-carne* (chili peppers with minced or sliced meat), *tamales*, another dish of chopped meat, highly seasoned with chilis and black pepper, wrapped in a corn-husk and boiled quickly, or in a *tortilla*, the Mexican bread, which is made from Indian corn, whose kernels have been first soaked in lime-water to remove the skin and to soften them, then ground in a stone *metate* (a kind of mortar board) with a stone roller to a paste which is shaped by the hands into flat cakes and baked quickly on an iron pan over a hot, charcoal fire; or the famous *frijoles*, black beans boiled, then fried in lard and served reeking with grease; or some of the other native dishes; but it is not likely. Of course, chocolate, as it is served in Mexico, appeals to many strangers; but the coffee does not; it is too strong and the beans are roasted too long, giving it a bitter flavour to which few strangers ever become accustomed.

There is not space to discuss more fully the subject of hotels and restaurants. Every tourist repeats what every other has said before him, that in every one of the principal cities of Mexico, there is a fortune awaiting the man who builds a modern hotel with all the up-to-date conveniences, baths, elevators, café, restaurant, etc., and furnishes it throughout for travellers from abroad. But everyone who goes into the subject care-

fully, at once finds that there are — for the foreign investor certainly — insuperable obstacles. There are legal difficulties; it is impossible to get a site because land values are prohibitive — this is especially true of Mexico City; and the Customs laws would make it impossible to bring in the necessary equipment from abroad; while domestic means of supply are yet totally inadequate to furnish such an hotel. Furthermore, even were these obstacles not insuperable, and such an establishment as has been suggested built and furnished, it would be impossible to get a staff of competent and reliable servants to run it. The *mozo* is all very well in his place; but chambermaids and, above all, dining-room and café waiters are still too far in the dim future to permit of a modern hotel venture being a success.

In the City of Mexico itself, something has been done in the way of improvement over the former state of affairs. This is, however, due to the wisdom of certain native investors who were able to secure sites that were impossible for foreigners. Yet even this effort is but a partial success, after all. Monsieur Ritz, whose name is a synonym for all that is advanced and successful in hotel management, has said that a modern hotel in Mexico City cannot be a success, because of the domestic servant problem, and if success is impossible in the capital, it is most certainly not possible in any other city.

But if the prospect is somewhat discouraging for hotel comfort, shall that altogether deter the tourist from visiting Mexico? By no means. If there is not at his service just what he is accustomed to in his homeland, it does not necessarily follow that he cannot get along at all, or even that he must be wretchedly uncomfortable. There is so much to charm and interest in so many other

ways that the drawback which the hotel problem seems to create is soon forgotten.

There was a time, not long ago, when the unsatisfactory sanitary condition of the City of Mexico made it an undesirable place for invalids; but this has already been improved and the good work is progressing so rapidly and so thoroughly that the stigma will, we feel sure, soon be effaced. However, we are not writing for the invalid alone; yet we may say here that the mildness and evenness of the climate generally is favourable to the alleviation of certain diseases, pulmonary ones especially, and if these climatic advantages were well known, the central, lofty plateau of Mexico would be considered one of the best sanitariums for those who are troubled with lung complaints, pulmonary tuberculosis particularly.

Should the invalid require a warmer climate than the high, open plateau, it may be found in some of the valleys in the *tierras templadas*, the temperate zone, Cuernavaca, Iguala, Tasco, or Cuantla, for example. The fact of the mild and even climate throughout the year is likely to attract visitors, winter and summer, both those on pleasure bent and those who are seeking to restore shattered health or prolong a feeble life.

The southern end of the Valley of Mexico is one of the most attractive places in the world. Lofty mountains on three sides make it almost an amphitheatre; and it is virtually at the foot of two peaks, Popocatepetl and Iztaccihuatl, which compare favourably in altitude with the highest mountains of the world. The air is rare and the atmosphere remarkably clear; the former quality will doubtless make itself known promptly to the visitor in a certain difficulty in breathing and a slight dizziness for a day or two, but they soon pass away without leav-



THE GREAT DRAIN, VALLEY OF MEXICO

TO THE
ANATOMY

ing any ill effect whatever. The sky is wonderfully blue, noticeably so just after the rain that falls at rare intervals, and then the valley is really a centre of magnificent scenery. The view from Chapultepec Hill, three miles southwest of the City of Mexico, and about one hundred and fifty feet higher than the Plaza, is one of the finest in the world. It takes in the grand boulevard, Paseo de la Reforma, about the only good thing that Maximilian did for his "empire," for it was he who planned it. The view includes the whole city, then sweeping to the west covers the valley, which possesses every attribute of scenic beauty.

We cannot say that Señor Romero was altogether too enthusiastic when he declared: "I have seen the Bosphorus, Constantinople, the Bay of Naples, and other spots in the world which are considered to be most remarkable for their natural beauty, but I think the view of the Valley of Mexico from Chapultepec can be advantageously compared with any of them, if it does not excel them all."

There were six lakes in the Valley of Mexico until recent times: probable conditions in prehistoric times have been mentioned elsewhere. These lakes were Chalco, Xochimilco, Texcoco, Xaltocan, San Cristobal, and Zupango; the first two fresh water, the others salt. They had no natural outlet, and this fact operated seriously against a proper sewerage system for the City of Mexico. We use the past tense in mentioning these lakes, because it is more than probable that by the time this little book is in the hands of readers, two of them, Chalco and what is left of Xochimilco, will be drained, as a part of the great scheme for improving the city's sanitary condition, and, at the same time, a large area of land, suited to the requirements of the fruiterer and

market gardener, will have been added to the material wealth of the Federal District.

If the scenery along their line of march was so grand as to compel the admiration of the band of freebooters — for, after all is said in praise of their valour, that is precisely what Cortés and his Conquerors were — it will surely appeal to the tourist who is seeking just such natural beauty. Such a traveller will have an opportunity of seeing most of that which impressed the Conquerors, if he takes a journey by train on the Mexican Railway from Vera Cruz to Mexico City.

This railway was the first line of length and importance ever completed in the Republic. The very first in the country, connecting the capital with the city of Guadalupe, three miles, was finished in 1854. This was really the first section of the Vera Cruz line, of which another section was constructed from the seaport to Tejeria, twelve miles, about the same time. During the Maximilian invasion, the French extended this section to Paso del Macho, about thirty-five miles farther, at the foot of the mountains, in order to carry the troops quickly out of the dangerous yellow-fever zone. When the Maximilian episode had collapsed, an English firm of capitalists took up the work of finishing the section over the mountains, and linking together the two portions already in operation. With them was associated Thomas Braniff, an American to whom is generally given the credit for the wonderful construction, and who subsequently managed the line.

This railway is only four hundred and twenty-four kilometres (two hundred and sixty-three miles) long, yet at one point it attains an altitude of over ten thousand feet above sea-level. It is unnecessary to say that some of the gradients are extraordinarily steep and the

curves are sometimes very sharp. In places the line runs along terraces cut into the solid rock of the mountain side, and the look down into the abyss is something trying to weak nerves. The construction was a stupendous undertaking and the cost over thirty-five million dollars; yet the railway has been, from the first, a most profitable investment. We think the Mexican Government has purchased a controlling interest as a matter of national policy; but it has not interfered at all in the management, any more than it has in the other railways that have been built with foreign capital.

With the City of Mexico for his principal centre for attack, and, let us say, Hermosillo, Chihuahua, Monterey, San Luis Potosi, Guadalajara, Puebla, Cuernavaca, Salina Cruz, and perhaps a score or more, as subordinate bases from which to work, the tourist will find that he needs a good long holiday in Mexico, if he wishes even to get a superficial glance at what the Republic has to offer that is more than simply interesting. If he has gone by rail all the distance from the United States to the capital, it will be a great pity not to make his way to one, at least, of the Gulf of Mexico ports, Vera Cruz or Tampico; and equally a cause for later regret if he does not journey to and past Lake Chapala to the interesting old city of Colima, and thence to the attractive harbour of Manzanillo, of which we shall say more in a later chapter.

Since, too, the trip by rail to the Isthmus of Tehuantepec can now be so easily and comfortably made, if he does not fancy the coast-voyage from Manzanillo, via Acapulco and Puerto Angeles to Salina Cruz, the visitor to Mexico will always regret it if he does not give himself the gratification of seeing that place, where the Republic separates the waters of the Atlantic from those

of the Pacific by only one hundred and twenty-five miles, in a straight line. The fine artificial harbours at Puerto Mexico, formerly called Coatzacoalcos, on the Atlantic, and Salina Cruz, on the Pacific, with the connecting railway, afford one of the most convincing proofs of Mexico's determination to win an important place among the commercial and industrial nations of the world.

Nor is it ill-chosen to recommend the visitor to go on a little farther to Palenquè, in the State of Chiapas; and certainly it will be well worth his while, either in going to the Isthmus or in returning thence, to visit the city of Oaxaca. Not only has it great personal and historic interest, Juarez and Diaz both being born there, but the mines, of which more will be said in the following chapter, and the prehistoric remains about the place, are exceedingly interesting, not only to the specialist, miner, or archæologist, but to the traveller who takes a general interest in all things which go to make up the social and industrial welfare of a nation.

We are extremely diffident, in closing this lengthy discussion of Mexico as an attractive country for the tourist, at suggesting that the intending visitor refrain, if possible, from joining a large "personally-conducted party." It is not alone the writer's observation, but it is practically that of all who have discussed the subject, that these rarely bring the satisfaction which comes to the individual or the small party of intimate friends. It is certain that the Mexicans have derived a great deal of amusement from the large "parties" of tourists who behave themselves as if Mexico, country and people alike, were a "show," to see which they had paid the full price of admission and had, therefore, secured the right by purchase to comment and criticise and at their own pleasure.

In normal conditions of peace and order, the Mexicans give a warm welcome to visitors of every kind; but they are sensitive; and this writer has observed that "parties" of tourists are too prone to ignore that sensitiveness.

We do not believe that the true sportsman, for whom we wish to write just a little, will admit that he includes the bull-fight in his category of sports; and yet it is probably true that every man visitor to Mexico, as well as an astonishing number of women tourists, will go to see this show. In every town of size, there is a *plaza de toros*, "bull-ring"; and in the capital there were three, only a few years since.

President Diaz and his wife both condemned this brutal amusement, and would never attend a fight. But, powerful as Diaz was in almost every way, he could not make the Mexicans give up the bull-fight. Indeed, the Mexicans are even more cruel and blood-thirsty in this respect than are the Spaniards; for they never seem satisfied unless several horses have been killed, and if a *toreador* has been injured the audience evinces an appreciation which waxes into enthusiasm should a bull-fighter be killed. However, it is only fair to say that these extreme cases are carefully guarded against. In a few words, a bull-fight is "sport" that should be beneath the contempt of humanitarians, even if the Mexican do like it and the small boys of that country play at it as English lads play cricket and American youngsters take to baseball. Personally, we put cock-fighting, likewise astonishingly popular with certain classes in Mexico, in the same category with bull-fighting.

But of legitimate sport there is an abundance to be had all over Mexico; and it is doubtless true that it will not be long before "sportsmen from all parts of the world

will regard an annual visit to Mexico of as much importance as bear-hunting in the Rockies, wild-game shooting in Africa, or tiger-shooting in India." Since every sport, in the sense of going out to kill something, has become specialised, it is well to enumerate three phases: bird-shooting, fish-catching with rod and line, and big-game hunting.

With the possible exception of some almost inaccessible regions of the Dominion of Canada, there is no section of North America where so many wild-fowl congregate as in Mexico's inland waters, during the winter. To enumerate all of them would be a task for the ornithologist. On Lake Chapala, State of Jalisco, hundreds of thousands of ducks are shot (and snared) every year without, as yet, any noticeable diminution of their numbers or disturbing their confidence. Then there are here, or in other places, geese, swan, pelican, snipe, curlew by the millions.

Of dry-land game-birds, there are any number of kinds and any quantity. The "Bob-White," or American quail, the blue Mexican quail, the valley quail of California, the Massena partridge, the prairie-hen, doves, wild pigeons, wild turkey, snipe, plover, and many others are also abundant. Near the capital, along the shore of Lake Xochimilco, the President of the Republic had a game preserve; there was some of the finest snipe-shooting in the world to be had here. If this preserve is not already a thing of the past, it must soon become such if the plan for reclamation is carried out.

We have not space to discuss exhaustively the opportunities which Mexico offers to fishermen; they are too numerous for that. We shall, in imagination, return to Tampico and consider the tarpon-fishing there. In

spite of the fact that a large sum of money has been spent in advertising Florida's claims, the best tarpon-fishing in the world is to be had at the mouth of the Panuco River, Tampico. It is a most exhilarating and exciting sport, which would be called terrifically hard work were it *not* sport, and the one thing to regret about it is that the meat of the tarpon is flavourless and rarely eaten. Tarpon have been caught at Tampico measuring over seven feet in length and weighing more than two hundred pounds. To take such a fish with a rod is something that calls for muscle and skill in the fisherman, and it is not surprising that the sportsman is usually satisfied with landing one in a day. The sport is not without an element of danger, for unless properly gaffed, the tarpon revives and plays the mischief with the canoe and its crew, and its jaws can inflict a nasty wound. There are, besides the tarpon, a number of other, smaller sea-fish which afford a measure of sport. For those who care to kill sharks, there are plenty of places where this may be done. The outer waters of Manzanillo Bay, on the west coast, is but one of these.

The physical conformation of Mexico naturally forbids of much sport in brook and river fishing; but some of the lakes have some fish that give a measure of sport. The government has tried to stock Lake Chapala, and other fresh-water lakes and streams with trout, bass, perch, and other game fish. There will probably be some sport for the fly-fisherman; but the effort of the government is badly hampered by the Indians who, in spite of game-laws and fish-wardens, will persist in using nets, so that the fish have a poor chance to breed.

Mexico offers the "big-game" sportsman plenty of opportunities to kill something. All through the western section of the country, as far south as Tepic, from the

American frontier, there are grizzly, cinnamon, and brown bears, and all over the Republic there are mountain lions, cougar, and the accounts given by many who have had encounters with this animal should satisfy the demands of the most exacting sportsman. He will find that the strength, cunning, and endurance of the cougar will cut out plenty of work for him; while the personal danger adds zest to sport. There are, also, plenty of deer, antelope, peccary, coyotes, badgers, and smaller animals. Some sportsmen have tried to popularise coursing, and with a measure of success. In fact, the big-game hunter is likely to complain of *embarras des richesses!*



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CHAPTER XII

THE WEALTH OF MEXICO

ALTHOUGH the geology of Mexico has not even yet been thoroughly studied, it is remarkable how liberal Nature seems to have been in distributing rocks that bear precious metals, such as silver, silver glance, copper, and gold, as well as the useful quick-silver, and the yet more useful but more prosaic iron. Coal, too, both anthracite and bituminous, exist in abundance, but these deposits have not yet been satisfactorily developed. This fact, however, is owing to the insufficient railway facilities for getting the coal to the consumers, industrial and domestic. This defect will so soon be overcome, that we may properly say Mexico is adequately supplied with mineral fuel for all her manufactories, as well as for railways and house heating.

Mexico, no doubt, well deserved the appellation, "the treasure house of the world," which Humboldt gave her; but the treasure, until a comparatively recent date, was considered to be almost entirely in the silver mines. This statement is made by Mr. Percy F. Martin, F.R.G.S.* "What we do know, more or less accurately, is that, while an abundance of gold, silver, and copper was certainly mined in a primitive manner by the ancient Toltecs and their successors the Aztecs, it was only in the year 1522 that a definite discovery of silver was made in Mexico."

* "Mexico of the Twentieth Century," Vol. II, p. 276.

This is surprising and requires some further explanation. The evidence is incontestable that the natives of Mexico, at the time of the Spaniards' invasion and conquest, had enormous quantities of precious metals, whether their methods of extracting and refining were crude or not. At first, the Mexicans were almost lavish in giving these treasures to the strangers; and that very generosity excited the cupidity of the Spaniards, which soon disgusted the Aztecs. The latter, when they discovered what it was that the former sought, gold, gold, gold, hid their accumulations as well as they could and concealed the sources of supply. So effective was that concealment that to this day the mines from which the Aztecs obtained their wealth of the precious metals have never been re-discovered.

To say that the year 1522 was the date when a definite discovery of silver was made in Mexico, and, by imputation, the first discovery, is anything but accurate. The enormous treasures which Montezuma gave Cortés, or that were seized by the Spaniards, the idols, images, ornaments of gold and silver found in various parts of the Republic, some of which have been already alluded to in these pages, seem to show conclusively that gold and silver had been definitely discovered, hundreds, perhaps thousands of years before a Spaniard at a place called Taxco, in the State of Guerrero, made that discovery in 1522, and "sent a sample of his treasure to the Spanish King, with many pious and loyal good wishes."

We know, of course, that notwithstanding the imperfect methods of mining and the wasteful processes of reduction and refining, which were followed from the early part of the sixteenth century until well into the nineteenth, and the absolute impossibility of keeping

the deep levels of the mines freed from water, the output of silver has been enormous ever since prehistoric times. The richest of these deposits of the precious metals are in the Sierra Madre Occidental, extending from Sonora in the extreme northwest, right away down to Oaxaca, say something like sixteen hundred miles in distance, where the mountains are "filled with gold and silver." Even so, it is a conservative statement that scarcely more than one-tenth of the mining resources of Mexico is known.

The most famous group of mines, historically, is that in the districts of Guanajuato, Zacatecas, and Catone in the States of Guanajuato, Zacatecas, and San Luis Potosi respectively. These districts, covering an area of some thirteen thousand square miles, are practically within the tropics, for the northern boundary is only $24^{\circ} 30' N.$ of the equator. The Veta Madre lode of Guanajuato alone produced \$252,000,000 between 1556 and 1803.

When Humboldt visited Mexico, just at the opening of the nineteenth century, he was told of two famous mines in Guanajuato, "Conde de Valenciana" and "Marques de Rayas." These two alone were producing nearly five million ounces of silver annually. Bearing in mind the ridiculously primitive, wasteful methods even then followed in extracting the ore and in refining the silver, it is wonderful that something over one hundred ounces to the ton (2240 lbs.) were obtained. These remarkable mines were subsequently so badly flooded that, apparently, no serious attempt was made to work them. Their names do not appear, and the famous present day mines of the district are quite different properties, although probably some of them draw from the same lode.

Apropos of this reflection upon the former methods followed in extracting precious metals, it is interesting to know, what probably was unknown to prospectors; seeking anxiously for the chance to "make their million," that some of the streets of Guadalajara, in the district famous for its archaeological treasures and antiquities of gold, are actually paved with gold. "A few years ago, when the asphalt company repaved the city streets, the asphaltum was mixed with tailings from the old Spanish and Mexican reduction works in the Etztlán district of Jalisco. After the paving had been done, the company's manager, out of curiosity, had a number of assays made of the old tailings. To his surprise, these assays revealed the fact that the tailings contained about fifteen dollars worth of gold and silver in each ton. About four hundred tons of tailings were used in paving, so the net amount of gold and silver laid in the streets represented over \$6000." *

If the State of Aguas Calientes, which means, literally, "hot waters" and is a most apposite name, because of the many thermal springs, is one of the smallest political divisions, it is of some importance in the industrial wealth of Mexico. There are woollen mills and one of the largest smelting-plants in the world, reducing silver and copper. In the town of Aguas Calientes, the Mexican Central Railway has its shops, wherein over two thousand workmen are employed. The foreign population of the state is exceptionally large and harmonious in its intercourse among the foreign members as well as with the Mexicans. The district is an important trade-centre. Of the "drawnwork," once such an important local industry, we have already written.

Campeche, although physically fair to look upon, is a

* Carson, *op. cit.*

deadly place for the white man, just because of its cool and shady forests, its luxuriant savannahs, verdant lagoons, and beautiful lakes; for therein lurk the malaria, the poisonous vapours, and the venomous reptiles. Its woods are valuable, and so is its salt. Scientific effort will, doubtless, overcome the dangers, and such agricultural pursuits as the cultivation of rice, sugar-cane, cotton, and tobacco, for all of which the soil is well adapted, will prove profitable. There are, too, promising mineral deposits that may be exploited, when sanitary conditions permit of intelligent supervision.

The State of Chiapas is a highly favoured section. Most of the district is within the tropics, yet its physical structure is such that a great variety in climate exists, so that recuperation from the effect of torrid heat may easily be secured. The soil is fertile and the agricultural possibilities of the state are great. As yet, however, capital has not sought investment in great amount. The petroleum industry and copper mining have attracted some foreign investors, with satisfactory results. Chiapas' archæological treasures have been barely hinted at on a previous page.

The great State of Chihuahua, a broad, undulating tableland, in most parts thousands of feet above sea-level, is not especially attractive to the stranger seeking beautiful scenery. While perhaps agriculture has not markedly decreased, yet mining has so greatly developed as to take precedence, until the ratio of mining values to those of farming is as four to one. The railway development in this state is already considerable and constantly increasing.

Coahuila, one of the largest states and topographically the most eccentric in shape, has been developed as a source of mineral wealth within a very short time.

It borders the United States of America, and its immense deposits of silver-bearing ores, its coalfields, as well as its copper, iron, and gold, have come to be established fact. Intelligence in developing these properties and systematic method in working, have resulted in an output of some three million dollars annually, and demonstrated that more can be done. But this immense state has other sources of wealth in the great, fertile plains that offer opportunities for stock-raising. Cattle, horses, and mules are reared here in great numbers and fetch good prices. The growth of cotton, too, has so greatly expanded in recent years, that the importation of the raw material has noticeably decreased.

Colima, next to the very smallest of the United States of Mexico, has not yet "found itself." It is out of the way, and its mineral wealth, for it must almost surely possess such, has not yet attracted the foreign capitalist. Colima holds forth allurements to the tourist because of its grand scenery, unexcelled, and in few places rivalled, in all the world. But the visitor must be cautious, for the climate is somewhat treacherous. The Colima coffee-bean is reckoned the best grown in Mexico; but it is not very popular in the United States of America.

Durango is attractive in many ways, because such a variety of climate may be had for the asking, and the scenery is superb. The fact that the state's first æsthetic fame is due to its flowers indicates that agriculture was its chief resource; but inasmuch as foreign capital, American chiefly, has found remunerative investment in mines, it cannot be long until here, too, the order must be reversed and precedence given to mining. When railway facilities are sufficiently provided, and construction was going on rapidly until the existing

political troubles put a temporary stop to it, doubtless the timber wealth of Durango will add greatly to her export trade. Stock-raising must be given an important place.

The wealth of the Federal District of Mexico lies more in industrial lines than in natural resources, and these will be considered in the next chapter. Whatever there is of natural resources may be mentioned in connection with the State of Mexico, of which the Federal District is a small part.

While mining is an important industry in the State of Guanajuato, it is far from being the only asset of this prosperous district. Its trade is estimated at nearly one hundred million dollars in value, — of which one-third is in minerals — sent to the capital or abroad. The railway development is quite on a parallel with that of the other parts of the Republic, and the people are so enterprising that demands for extension are constant.

To Guerrero must be assigned the unenviable distinction of being one of the least progressive states of the Republic. The mountain structure is such as to offer a serious obstacle to railway construction, and there is, as yet, inadequate connection of this kind with the railway systems of the interior. Some branch lines have been built down into the northern sections of this great state, but it will probably be a long time before the intervening sierra is pierced to give connection with the coast. The harbour of Acapulco is, naturally, the finest in Mexico; but the volume of business done through the Custom House there still shows such pitiful figures as to indicate the backwardness of this state. There are mineral deposits in Guerrero, and time will ere long bring about their development. The opals of

Guerrero, especially those from the San Nicholas del Oro and Huitzuco mines, are known the world over. "There are two classes of opals, the common and the fine, the former having a milky-white colour, with a tendency to yellow more or less marked, while the fine opal presents many beautiful variations in colour, ranging from a topaz-yellow to a pale-red, with vivid flashes of red and green. At Huitzuco, where quicksilver is also worked, the opal is found in traquite rock, and the quality is of dark blue-grey, almost a black, from which red and green colourings flash with the varying light." *

All the world knows the great value of the mining industry in the State of Hidalgo; yet farming is of but little less importance. Cereals thrive and there are besides plantations of coffee, sugar-cane, cotton, and tobacco. The state has everywhere an air of prosperity that is pleasing to the visitor and must be most gratifying to the resident and investor. Hidalgo is only 8920 square miles in area, yet its wealth, in many lines, is enormous and susceptible of even yet greater development. The capital, Pachuca, has been famous as a centre of the mining industry since prehistoric times. It is a quaint and interesting old place, and in the eyes of visitors from other lands, is conspicuous among Mexican towns for the fact that there are houses with chimneys; but inasmuch as the winter is very cold, these facilities for getting artificial heat are recognised as being absolutely necessary.

Jalisco, possessing lands that are exceptionally well suited to the growing of almost everything in the vegetable kingdom, is one of the leading states for the agriculturalist, and the local government lends commendable (if it has to be added rather exceptional) assistance in

* Martin, *op. cit.*



A BALCONY AND COURTYARD

TO VINU
ABHAYAN

promoting this industry. Cattle-raising is another profitable occupation, the value of which already runs up to something like seven or eight million dollars annually. There are indications of petroleum which seem to offer opportunity to the development that must soon come. The Indians knew how to make one good use of this natural oil: they mixed it with resin and daubed it over their canoes to make them watertight. They are alleged to have called the mixture *chicle de pato*, a name not very intelligible, but which probably meant something like "duck-skin," as shedding water. Many valuable minerals and others that are merely useful, are found in this state: some of them are gold, silver, copper, iron, lead, and cinnabar. Americans are the principal promoters and the output of all the mines is valued at about a million and a half dollars a year. Ahualulco, Hostotipaquilla, Navidad, Tula (where there are immense beds of iron ore) are district names well known to investors whose interests lie in that particular direction.

The claims of the State of Mexico (Federal capital, Mexico City, State capital, Toluca) are mainly scenic and climatic. Toluca is midway between *las tierras calientas* and *las tierras frias*. It has the advantages of both "hot" and "cold," and is remarkably free from the drawbacks of both. This state is one of the most prosperous in the Republic. The soil is wonderfully fertile and it is cultivated in a thorough and skilful way that recalls the incisiveness of the very best European market-gardeners and small farmers. Outside of the cities and towns, there is not a great deal to attract the foreign capitalist or promoter. But municipal improvements still present attractive opportunities.

Michoacán de Ocampo is one of the richest and most

beautiful states of Mexico. Within its borders lies one-sixth of Lake Chapala, and when the enthusiastic Mexican calls his country "The Switzerland of America," it is safe to say he is thinking of Michoacán. The remainder of Lake Chapala lies in Jalisco. Michoacán is rich in *fauna* and *flora*. Its substantial wealth lies mainly in agricultural products and stock-raising. The value of the total trade is probably thirty-five million dollars annually: this includes the output of mines, one of which, La Esperanza, is exceptionally rich in sulphide ores. The mining districts of this state are classed among the principal ones of Mexico.

Morelos is a great sugar-producing country, but because of the necessity for irrigation, a condition which does not exist in all the sugar districts, the cane must be replanted every two years. Excellent oranges are now grown here and the state seems to give promise of great development as a fruit-growing centre. While it would be incautious to say that Morelos has no mineral wealth, it is true, we think, that no great developments in this line have been reported from the state. It is a great sanitarium and Cuernavaca is a popular resort.

Nuevo Leon is given rank in importance with the State of Mexico. This claim is based upon industrial and commercial development, and these owe their incentive principally to the effort of American enterprise. The opportunities have not yet been exhausted and the rapid progress that has been made in mining during recent years gives promise of still further gain in wealth. Iron and coal deposits have been described as "inexhaustible," but the proper exploitation of these cannot be said to have yet been begun. Much attention has been given to silver and silver-bearing lead ores, although copper, lead, sulphur, and marble are mined in quantities and

of satisfactory quality. No profitable gold deposits have as yet been found.

To discuss the State of Oaxaca exhaustively, would demand an entire volume much larger than this book. As a factor in Mexico's wealth, Oaxaca's main features are agriculture and petroleum, with stock-raising as a third one to be reckoned with seriously. It is certainly a most prosperous district, and capital from all parts of the world has found profitable investment there. The theory has been advanced that there are two great streams of petroleum, one flowing down the west coast, beneath the Sierra Madre Occidental, and the other along the Atlantic coast, under the Sierra Madre Oriental; both sending forth small jets here and there. These two main streams come together at or just south of the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, and certainly there are abundant surface indications of petroleum in that region, which give a colour of plausibility to the theory. The capital city, Oaxaca, stands over five thousand feet above the sea and, in spite of the fact that it is well down towards the fifteenth parallel of north latitude, there is always a mild, healthful temperature. In the immediate neighbourhood, easily accessible by rail or fairly good roads, are some of the best producing mines of gold, silver, copper, or lead, the precious metals being always associated with the baser ones.

Puebla is one of the best populated states of the Republic: it is also one of the most productive. The scenery is beautiful and the inhabitants are noted for their contentment and forehandedness. The leading industry is agriculture; cereals, sugar-cane, coffee, the vanilla-bean, and fruits of many kinds are among the chief products. There is a most pleasing air of well-being to be noted as one travels through the district.

Of late years remarkable progress has been made in the cotton industry; fabrics, plain and figured, are turned out in large quantities and of excellent quality. There are, too, mines of gold, silver, and copper, as well as great quarries of marble. The quarrying and cutting of onyx has now come to be an established industry, although dealers in the United States of America, who would be, probably, the largest customers, complain that it is difficult to get the material delivered according to sample. This, however, does not seem to worry the miners very much, for they find themselves fully occupied in supplying the domestic demand. The city of Puebla, capital of the state, is a most interesting place, both scenically and historically.

Queretaro is another of the well-populated states. It is divided, naturally, into two sections, a northern one that is very mountainous, and a central-southern one that is fairly level, with alternating plains and valleys. The climate is, therefore, variable according to the altitude, yet in no part is it specially trying. The soil is fertile and hence agriculture is profitably followed. The wheat grown here is considered the best in the whole Republic. The tables of mineral production show this region to be exceptionally well supplied, the list including silver, galena, copper, iron, lead, cinnabar, coal. Many valuable stones, such as opals and garnets, are found in quantities. The mountainous character of this state makes mining very difficult, and that difficulty is aggravated by the insufficient railway facilities; but this is being rapidly overcome. We should not leave this interesting state without referring again to the fact that it was here Maximilian made his last fight, was captured and shot, a few miles from the state capital, Queretaro City.

The state, to which the Spaniards gave the name of San Luis Potosi, was famous for its output of silver long before the Europeans arrived in America. The name was chosen in honour of Saint Louis, and Potosi was added because the mineral wealth recalled that of the celebrated "Potosi" district in Peru. The geographical position of the state is favourable in every way, and it is surrounded by distinguished neighbours. The number of prosperous *haciendas*, landed estates, farms, or ranches, indicate one of the most attractive sources of wealth, because there are great possibilities for the fruit-grower, the coffee-grower, the market-gardener, and the stock-breeder. Mining, however, is still the industry upon which the fame of this great state rests. Since 1893, the development of this business along modern lines, making use of scientific methods and machinery, has been remarkable. The railway facilities are already ample and these are being yet further expanded. With the connection to the Gulf of Mexico, at Tampico, and with that to all other trunk-lines, the state has the whole world at its doors.

The State of Sinaloa is exceptionally fortunate, among the divisions of the Republic, in having one of the few really good harbours that indent the coast. From Mazatlan there are lines of railway connecting the port with the trunk-line systems of the interior. It may be added that American capitalists are building a coast line southward from the State of Sonora. When this is open for traffic, and the many contemplated feeders running up into the hills and mountains are constructed, the enormous resources of this great State of Sinaloa will have railway connection with the United States of America by a direct line. The development of Mazatlan must follow, as a matter of course. It is yet

impossible to give much precise information as to Sinaloa's wealth, because of lack of facilities for exploration and development, but that wealth must be enormous. We know that there are vast regions, susceptible of cultivation, that have scarcely been touched, and here there must be wonderful possibilities for the farmer, lumberman, viticulturalist, and stockman; but the alien settler should pay careful heed to the warnings which have been given as to legal aspects of his position. As for the mineral wealth of the district, what little is known and what may be safely assumed by the mineralogist, justify the assumption that this industry must be a source of enormous revenue and it offers attractive opportunities for investors. The State of Sinaloa will probably become, in the near future, a most important factor when the statistician discusses Mexico's wealth.

In the State of Sonora, the port of Guaymas has hitherto ranked as an important shipping point; but it is likely to be supplanted by Manzanillo and Acapulco when trans-Pacific trade comes to be developed, because it is so far up the Gulf of California. The coastwise trade will probably be supplied by the north and south railway to extend from the American frontier southward, eventually to the southern boundary of Mexico. Yet scenically Guaymas is a most attractive spot. Sonora is, next to Chihuahua, the largest state in the Republic. The development here, due mainly to American enterprise, both in railways and in industries, has been rapid in this century. Much of the soil is useless for cultivation, but in the sections where it is fertile, cereals, tobacco, cotton, sugar-cane, and fruits are profitable, although most of these crops are dependent upon artificial irrigation, and this is somewhat difficult to obtain. On January 1, 1912, a local ordinance, forbidding foreigners

to own or work mining properties, ceased to be operative, and this fact has given a great stimulus to the locating and developing of mines. It should be stated that the revoked law was not passed with the intention of debarring strangers from profitable investments, but for the reason that the authorities felt themselves unable to restrain the depredations of the Yaqui Indians, whose indiscriminate assaults so frequently led to international complications. The mineral wealth of the State is enormous, including gold, silver, lead, copper, antimony, cinnabar, iron, graphite, coal. Mr. Charles Pettinos, an authority on the subject, states that Sonora graphite is the best in the world, excelling that of Siberia or Japan in quality, in the ease with which it is mined, and the smoothness in working. The railway facilities have been entirely inadequate and badly managed, but owing to the pressure of competition, either real or threatened, these conditions are being improved rapidly so that the future of the state is very bright and the attractions for investors are great. The reflection upon former railway facilities is an adverse comment upon American methods and perhaps had better not be enlarged upon here. It will have been noticed by the general reader how little Sonora and its people have had to do with the recent political troubles in Mexico.

Very little has been done in the way of developing the resources of the State of Tabasco. Although having a considerable stretch of coast-line, there are no bays or harbours, yet vessels may secure safe anchorage in the river-mouths. At present, the wealth of the state is almost wholly agricultural, the soil being exceptionally fertile. "The *fauna* and *flora* of Tabasco are practically endless in variety, and every species of both, found in every other part of the Republic as well as in most

tropical countries, can be met with here." * It is contended by some observers that mining will eventually supplant agriculture as a source of wealth. So far as is now well known, the miners are restricted to deposits of coal and cinnabar, while there are some petroleum fields. The exploitation of all these has not yet progressed sufficiently to permit of very precise statement. Yet it is safe to say that Tabasco possesses possibilities as a producer of wealth. The climate is rather a deterrent to the alien investor.

Tamaulipas is, next to Yucatan which exceeds it in size by a few thousand square miles only, the largest of the states bordering on the Gulf of Mexico, but it is even now very sparsely populated. Some improvement in this respect has taken place during the past five years. Hitherto the few people have been mostly settled in or near the port of Tampico and the capital, Victoria City. It is an attractive state, naturally, for it has good soil, abundant timber, navigable rivers, and minerals. The scenery is hardly surpassed by that of any other part of the Republic. The principal products are cereals, beans, sugar-cane, coffee, tobacco, cotton, and *maguery*, all of which might be raised in greatly increased quantities. The fruit-grower can hardly find a more desirable place in which to locate. Stock-raising is another industry which holds forth attractions. There are, too, opportunities remaining for the promoter of railways and waterways, the Mexican Government being ready to grant concessions to *bona fide* enterprises contemplating the construction of these needed means of communication. We hardly look to a country so far south, or rather so near the equator, as Mexico for importance in the meat-packing trade, yet this industry

* Martin, *op. cit.*

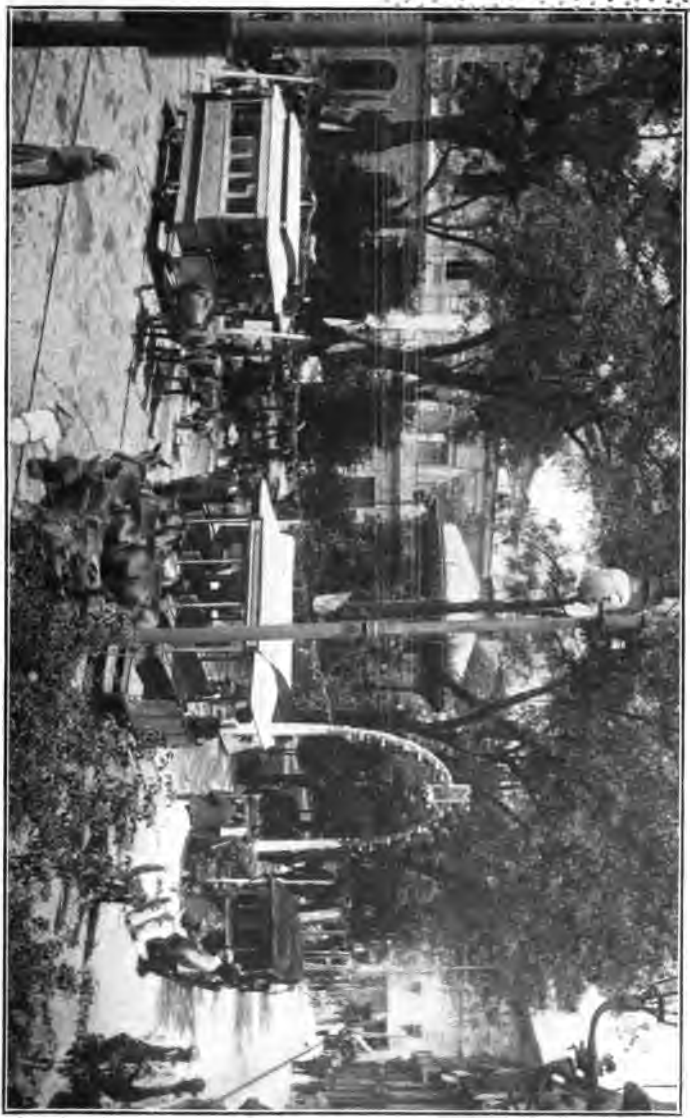
is rapidly assuming considerable proportions in Tamaulipas, and it is susceptible of much expansion. Several hundred thousand hogs are now butchered annually and hams and bacon are sent abroad. The state is immensely well-off in minerals, gold, silver, copper, as well as salt, marble, asphalt, and others; and since large sums of foreign capital have been invested within the past five or six years, the development has been great and the returns handsome.

Tlaxcala, "the land of bread," is the smallest state in the Republic, being only 1595 square miles in area, yet it has a population of considerably over one hundred to the square mile, and in this respect it is next to the Federal District, which shows the maximum density, more than a thousand to the square mile. The history of the Tlaxcalteca Republic, which maintained its independence of the Aztec rulers for a long time, would be exceedingly interesting, were it possible to write it fully and correctly. There has been no alteration in the area or boundaries during that history, but the capital has been changed. The altitude is something like 6500 feet above sea-level. A part of the state is on the eastern slopes of Popocatepetl, and this peak and its companion, Iztaccihuatl, are visible from all parts of the state. The climate is excellent, and all the conditions are favourable for residence. Some minerals have been found, gold, silver, lead, cinnabar, and a little coal; but mining is of small importance. Agriculture is the chief resource, and the fertile valleys give every requisite for it. Tlaxcala is especially noted for the *maguey* plant, from the sap of which *pulque* is made. Some manufactures, such as cotton-weaving and paper-making (from the *maguey* fibre) have been prosecuted very successfully, and the state is most prosperous,

yet the field has been so well occupied that there is not much opportunity left for the foreign capitalist, save in concessions for urban improvements and rapid transit facilities.

The State of Vera Cruz ranks second in the output of sugar and molasses, Morelos being first and Puebla third. Although this state has lost some of its former prestige, because of development of other parts of the Republic, rather than from shrinkage of its own resources, it is still one of the most important districts. Long and narrow in shape, it is much below a number of other states in size, yet in population it is well to the fore. Agriculture is followed successfully. There are nearly one thousand plantations growing cereals, tobacco, coffee, cotton, timber, sugar-cane, fruit, and a number given up to stock-raising; precedence being taken by the last mentioned. The great Huatusco Potosina is in Vera Cruz. This is "a great cattle-raising region, consisting of a succession of rich valleys separated from one another by verdure-covered terraces or hills, increasing in height as they recede to the westward. This slope, with its numerous smaller valleys, receives the moisture of the breezes from the Gulf in the form of rain during the summer months, and in dew during those of autumn and winter, rendering them practically free from frost, drought, or excessive heat. Stockmen declare that this natural pasturage land is as fine as any in the world, and pasturage may be depended on all the year round, especially the South American and African grasses, Pará and Guinea, developing and flourishing remarkably well here." If mining seems to be of little importance in Vera Cruz, it is not because there are no minerals, but because capital has found sufficiently attractive opportunity for investment in other lines.

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EL JARDIN, PLAZA IN FRONT OF THE THEATRE IN GUANAJUATO

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Gold, silver, lead, iron, cinnabar, copper, coal, petroleum, and asphalt are sufficiently plentiful to invite exploitation, but the small number of mining claims registered tells the story. There are, besides, marble, opals, agates, lapis-lazuli, and amethysts to be found in plenty. The many industries of the state have already induced large investments of foreign capital, yet there are many opportunities to do more. The large volume of import and export trade at the port of Vera Cruz contributes much to the prosperity of the state.

Because of the check which hemp cultivation in the Philippine Islands has received, from various causes, since the Spanish-American War, the wide plains of the great peninsula of Yucatan, formerly reckoned to be of little economic value, have sprung into world-wide fame because of the production of the henequén plant. The fibre is used in the manufacture of carpets, rugs, twine, rope, and sacking. Yucatan, from being a very poor state, has become one of the richest in the Mexican Republic, because of this henequén industry. Other agricultural resources of the district include sugar-cane, tobacco, and chicle-gum. The last mentioned article finds an enormous market in the United States of America, where it is used in the manufacture of the abominable chewing-gums, the consumption of which bids fair to hasten the arrival of that time, by scientists foretold, when the North American representatives of the Caucasian race shall be toothless and without digestive organs! Merida, the capital of Yucatan, is said to be one of the most agreeable residential cities in the Republic, notwithstanding its geographical situation and its apparently uninviting surroundings. This is largely due to the fact that, owing to alien influences, it is a very up-to-date town

and has a good climate all the year round. American investors are the most numerous, but European capital has sought and found remunerative employment; yet the possibilities are by no means exhausted. Many commercial and industrial opportunities are still waiting exploitation.

The rather central situation of the State of Zacatecas has contributed much to the prominence which this district has achieved. The silver mines, although still worked in a small way as compared with what they were long ago, have given precedence to copper, now the most important mineral. Cattle-raising is another profitable and growing industry. The mines and the stock ranches are the state's principal assets, for agriculture is carried on with difficulty, because of the unfavourable physical conformation of the land. The firm, yet progressive, character of the local government gives exceptional assurance to foreign investors, and must attract promoters of industrial enterprises, town improvements, and the like.

Of Lower California, one of the three territories of the Republic, the little that is known does not justify saying much of the district as a contributor to Mexico's wealth. That which has been actually demonstrated is very little: pearl-fisheries, in a small way; *archil*, a kind of Spanish moss used by dyers to secure a rich purple colour, and by chemists in the preparation of litmus paper; *henequén*, and some hemp. The possibilities in the matter of minerals are purely speculative; yet there is ground for belief that the peninsula is well supplied with gold, silver, copper, lead, coal, gypsum, and many precious or valuable stones. Two causes operate to deter investors: the first is the scarcity of fresh water; and the second is the inadequate means of

communication. With these overcome, there is probably a future for bleak, sterile, uninviting Lower California; and both may be conquered.

Quintana-Roo is a territory recently created from a part of Yucatan; its political and municipal organisation dating from 1904 only. It is not even yet developed sufficiently to admit of conjecture, and possibly that development may mean the complete extermination of the remaining Maya Indians, who have resisted all efforts to civilise and control them. The Central Government is offering attractive inducements to settlers who shall work the timber, the agricultural lands, and the other resources. Of the mines, there is nothing to say.

Tepic, the third territory, is quite important as an agricultural district. The soil is rich; cereals, cotton, tobacco, sugar-cane, coffee, beans, and rice yield large returns. Coffee-growing is the most profitable. The mineral wealth of the district has not been determined fully, but gold, silver, and copper are being extracted profitably at several places. With railway facilities supplied, and these are near at hand, this little territory may soon expand sufficiently to merit promotion to the dignity of statehood.

CHAPTER XIII

INDUSTRIAL AND MUNICIPAL DEVELOPMENT

IT means but little to say that the first railway in Mexico, of length sufficient to entitle it to be seriously considered, was finished in 1873, and that there are now so-and-so many thousand miles in active operation. It was a long time after that wonderful line from the sea, at Vera Cruz, via Orizaba to the capital was opened for traffic before there came a re-commencement of activity in railway building. Had it not been for the wisdom, progressiveness, and liberality of the Mexican statesmen, in making this work attractive to foreign capitalists, very few of those thousands of miles of railways would have been added. For while Mexico has always been enormously rich in potential wealth, it requires large sums of available cash to convert wealth buried in the richest mines into circulating medium of mint value. Mexicans were without the ready cash; but fortunately for them the accumulations in American coffers were drawn out by attractive promises faithfully kept.

There is now scarcely a state of Mexico that has not at least a suggestion of railway facilities and some of them are quite well supplied. As yet, however, there are but two great trunk-lines north and south in the Republic, the Mexican Central, from the Rio Grande River at El Paso (Texas) — Ciudad Juarez (Chihuahua) to Mexico City. South of the capital, lines have been pushed onward for some distance; but in this central

system there is still a gap between the northern railways and those in the southern states. Not that it is impossible to go by rail from the capital to the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, but to do this necessitates a very round-about journey and, for the ordinary traveller, sundry changes.

The system from the American frontier down through the Gulf States, already connected with the central system by tranverse lines across Coahuila, is being steadily pushed forward, and by the time this book is printed this eastern line will be an accomplished fact. Another trunk-line, north and south, is projected down through the Pacific states. These three systems will all eventually be carried down to the Isthmus of Tehuantepec and there converge. This is something which is already brought down from the realm of the visionary and improbable into the list of those things which, humanly speaking, shall be in due course of time.

The great Pan-American Railway is to be accomplished before many years. This means that there is to be a line (possibly several) in Mexico down to the borders of Guatemala. Thence this trunk-line will be built through Guatemala, Salvador, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Panama, and on in South America, until connection is made with lines already in operation there, or to be constructed soon.

It will not be long until one can take a train at any of the large cities of the United States or Canada, for Chili, Peru, Argentina, Brazil, or any important place in South America, in fact. Mexico has taken the lead in granting concessions for railways, and has relieved the builders from all onerous burden of taxation. A few words may very well be inserted here about the terms the Government offered the Mexican Central Railway Company,

Limited. They included \$15,200 (gold) per mile subsidy; right to import all construction, operating, and repair material free of duty for fifteen years from February 25, 1880; exemption from taxation for fifty years from completion of line, and sundry other minor privileges.

The same favours, excepting the subsidy, have been granted other companies, with the result that a score of years have brought development in railways far beyond the wildest dream of enthusiasts a few years ago. The physical difficulties in the way of trans-continental railway construction are great; yet there is not a cross-section of the country that engineers would now admit to be impossible, provided only that the through traffic, or the local patronage, holds forth promise of a reasonable return on the investment. Several lines could be cited to support this statement, but we mention only one, the Kansas City, Mexico and Orient, which starts from the frontier at Presidio del Norte, pierces the Sierra Madre Occidental, and reaches the Gulf of California at Port Stilwell.

When we think of the weeks that it took in the sixteenth century for the Spaniards to carry merchandise from Acapulco to Vera Cruz, on the backs of peons, or in ox-carts, which were the only available vehicle, and now contemplate the day or two that will be required when the railway to connect these ports, rapidly being constructed, is completed, the haste of this world's people becomes singularly marked.

It must not be assumed that these few paragraphs are intended to give a synopsis of the Mexican railways. Full information, up to recent dates, may be had in a number of books which deal with the subject fairly exhaustively. Mr. Percy F. Martin's, frequently alluded

to, is a good one up to its date, 1907. Our purpose is merely to give a suggestion of the development which has taken place in Mexico in this particular line.

In 1906 the Mexican Government purchased a majority of the shares of the Mexican Railway, thus acquiring control of the system. It had previously owned the Mexican National, the Vera Cruz and Pacific, and a controlling interest in the Tehuantepec National. It therefore practically controls all the railways in the Republic. But, as has already been stated, and now to quote Mr. José Y. Limantour, Minister of Finance in President Diaz's Cabinet in 1903: "The Government by acquiring a controlling share in the directorates of the various railway corporations would be able to constitute a system which, by reason of its great extent and the importance of the regions traversed, would enable it to exercise over the railway corporations an influence which would be equally beneficial to all, obviating ruinous competition and directing traffic into its narrow and cheapest channel, securing for the population the benefit of a considerable share of the economies realised, and protecting in an equitable manner the capital invested in railways and in all other forms of public wealth."

As a rule, to which the writer knows no exception save certain special or private trains, there are three classes of carriages in all Mexican railway trains. For all, the fares are comparatively cheap, for the third class rather less than one cent a mile on the average. The accommodations are good, all things considered. The third-class carriages are always overcrowded, and the hard wooden benches are not inviting. The patrons of this class, Indians as a rule, are not always the most desirable of travelling companions; they smoke in-

cessantly — but so do nearly all Mexicans of both sexes — only the Indians' cigarettes are rolled in any kind of old paper or corn-husk, of the worst of tobacco. The most serious objection, however, is the constant drinking of *pulqué* or *mescal*, either from bottles carried along in their luggage, or bought at the stations. Mexicans of all classes are permitted to take with them into the train an enormous amount of hand luggage, which they pile up on the seats, and late-comers often have to call in the assistance of a station-master or train conductor before they can get a place, even though there may be plenty not occupied by passengers.

On trains running a long distance, or overnight, the sleeping-car fare, comparable with the same in the United States, is to be added to the ordinary first-class ticket fare. Some lines have reclining-chair cars for first-class passengers, free of charge, on others a small fee is demanded for this luxury. Travellers should remember that at the Mexican railway station dining-rooms no discrimination is made between the patrons of the several "classes." It is a case of "first come, first served." It is well, therefore, to have one's own little company and get in early, or, if alone, to wait until those in the first rush have found their seats, and then pick one's neighbours.

To one who first visited Mexico forty odd years ago, the transformation in the physical appearance of the cities, and in the ways of the citizens, is really more astonishing than is the fact that the traveller now rushes from town to town in a railway carriage, instead of journeying along rough, muddy, or dusty roads in a *diligencia*, the great, lumbering, old-fashioned stage-coach. These vehicles are still met with occasionally when one is going to some mining town or hill resort

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FLOWER FESTIVAL ON LA VIGA CANAL, MEXICO CITY

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not accessible by railway. They are truly typical of old-time, conservative Mexico, and are used simply because the ancestors of the present generation employed them. They are, just themselves, a heavy load for the four or six mules (rarely horses), and when loaded with passengers, luggage, and some merchandise, it is impossible to make good time along the wretched roads where they are used. A light, American coach, of the type often called a "mud-wagon," would be much better suited to the needs of the case, but such an innovation would be rejected because *no es costumbre*, "it is not the custom." The old-fashioned, high, swinging coach is very picturesque, and may be well-suited to smooth roads in a fairly level country, but its day in Mexico is speedily passing.

In former times buildings of more than two storeys in height were not seen. It was not then necessary to differentiate residences and business houses, because the merchant or tradesman had his residence in the upper storey, over his office, store, or shop. Warehouses or storehouses, if they were detached buildings, conformed to the rule for two-storeyed structures. The cathedral or the churches towered above all the other buildings, but they were the only buildings higher than two storeys.

There were, too, no suburbs, and the diligence, or the more frequent traveller on horseback, passed abruptly from the open country and the wretched country road to the even more wretched city streets, which were either as Nature made them or paved with round cobblestones that made driving a joint-racking experience. The streets were flanked by houses closely built together on either side. The absence of suburbs was not an accidental or unnatural condition. If at-

tacks by Indians were not seriously feared, there was danger of a visit from some band of marauders, so that it was wise to be close to one's neighbours for protection and concerted action. Near the centre of the town, or in the quarters favoured by the great landowners, who approximated the nobility of other lands, and the independently wealthy, the houses were large in area and grand in their appointments. They were often surrounded by large and beautiful gardens, enclosed by high walls topped with broken glass or something equivalent, to make scaling a difficult and dangerous undertaking.

In the matter of suburbs, a marked change has taken place all over Mexico as a consequence of the feeling of security which improved police protection has brought. Especially around the capital is this noticeable. There are indications of true suburban life in the small residential towns clustered about Mexico City, as well as other large towns, which are quickly reached by tram-lines or steam railways; while the true city suburbs are spread out as they never were in earlier days. But it must be admitted that these modern suburbs rarely add to the attractiveness of the approach to the city.

Then, when the traveller reaches the heart of the city, business buildings of many storeys tower into the air. These are for the exclusive use of merchants in the ground floors and for offices in the upper ones that are reached by elevators, or "lifts" according to whether the American or English terminology is affected, although the Spanish *ascensor* more closely approximates the French word. As for the streets, the capital now presents an appearance comparable with the best anywhere in the world; while even the provincial cities and smaller towns are being paved with concrete or

asphalt. Tram-lines traverse the cities in all directions. They are generally electric, although a few mule-power cars are still to be seen, even in the capital.

Another thing which convinces the traveller, who now returns to Mexico after an absence of ten or twenty years, that the land and the people have waked up from their former lethargy, is the general appearance of the cities, most of the larger towns, and some of the smaller places. Formerly the *diligencia* deposited its load at an inn facing or near to the Plaza, or the principal one if the city was large enough to be divided into sections, each having its own Plaza.

Then, if occasion arose to go to some other part, sufficiently distant to necessitate driving, the vehicle that passed for a hackney cab was another relic of antiquity. One cannot say overmuch in praise of the *coches*, cabs, of the present day, for they, too, are hardly consistent with up-to-date Mexico. In the capital, the taxi-cab is coming to be seen; but usually the public carriages are the first-class and second-class mule *coches*, distinguished by blue or red flags, and by a variation of fare.

As a rule, however, the stranger is spared the necessity of taking a cab, because the electric tram-car service is adequate almost everywhere. In a very few towns there are still to be seen little old-fashioned "horse-trams" (mules, of course!), and such have not absolutely disappeared from the streets of Mexico City itself. Quite frequently, too, the railway station, for physical or economic reasons that are usually sufficient, is so far from the Plaza, that these mule-trams must be taken to get into town.

Although some progressive, but inexperienced, Mexicans undertook to build and operate a tram-car service

in 1856, it was not a success, financially or in any other way. The year 1890 may really be taken as the beginning of this improvement in urban transportation facilities. Since then, a very large sum of foreign capital has found investment in this industry, and inasmuch as the management is in the control of investors who are admirably supported by the municipal governments wherever they may be, the investment is yielding respectable returns.

The cars are, as a rule, of the combination order, a small compartment at one end for "second-class" passengers, very familiar in the United States, although there that compartment is for smokers and, sometimes, baggage; and not at all uncommon in Europe. Strangers, ladies especially, will wish that there was a "no smoking" order enforced in the body of the car; but again we should be met with the statement *no es costumbre*. The seats are generally covered with finely woven rattan or some similar material.

One type of street-car will certainly attract the attention of the visitor to the capital (and to the other cities where it is used). It is the "funeral" car, and its "trailers" carrying the mourners to the cemetery; for hearses drawn by horses and carriages in long procession passing at a snail's pace through the streets are rarely seen. The first mentioned is a short, open platform car with a roof supported by stanchions. It is just long enough to carry the coffin, resting on low stands and covered with the pall, with space at either end for the motorman. When in service, the car is suitably draped, and as it passes through the streets, all pedestrians (and others, too) uncover respectfully — devout people crossing themselves and murmuring a prayer for the repose of the departed one's soul. This tram-car

funeral *cortège* does not receive the right of way: therefore much time is saved. In this matter, Mexico furnishes an example which other countries might well follow. There was a time, not very long ago, when professional mourners were conspicuous in funeral processions; but they are no longer seen. The motor-man and other railway attendants wear an appropriate mourning uniform.

The great improvement which has taken place in the water supply for Mexican cities, and which is still progressing, owes everything nearly to the investments of foreign capitalists; and it is pleasing to know that these investments are yielding satisfactory returns. Sufficient has been said in other chapters to indicate that Mexico's advance in industries, agriculture, and commerce is quite comparable with that in other directions.

CHAPTER XIV

MOUNTAINEERING IN MEXICO

IT must be evident to all who have read what has been said already of the orography of Mexico, and who will then look at a map, that the mountains of the Republic offer seductive possibilities for those who like to climb. But because some of the highest peaks do not come into full view until after the visitor has reached the great central plateau, they seem to be not so high as they really are, for already an altitude of several thousand feet above sea-level has been attained. Mexico City itself is about 7400 feet above the sea.

The following list gives the names and locations of several mountains that are over 10,000 feet high. The list may not be exhaustive and the figures may not be precise, while the latter may differ from the estimates or statements of others. Yet the list is sufficiently complete and the altitudes accurate enough to satisfy our present purpose.

Name	Location	Height in Feet Above Sea-Level
Pico de Quinceo	Michoacan	10,905
Zempoaltepec or Zemoaltepec	Oaxaca	11,141
Tancitaro	Michoacan	12,467
Zapotlan	Jalisco	12,743
Colima, the active volcano	Jalisco	12,750
Malinche	Puebla	13,000
Cofre de Perote	Vera Cruz	13,415
Ajusco	Mexico or Federal District	13,628
Colima or Nevade de Colima	Colima and Jalisco	14,363
Toluca on Xinantecatl	Mexico	15,156
Ixtaccihuatl, "White Woman"	Mexico and Puebla	16,705
Popocatepetl, "Smoking Mountain"	Mexico	17,782
Orizaba	Vera Cruz and Puebla	18,314

The account which Prescott gives of the ascent of Mount Popocatepetl by Diego Ordaz, one of Cortés' captains, accompanied by nine other Spaniards and several Tlascalans, is still about as interesting as any we have, and it has probably been the incentive to mountain climbing in Mexico for the pleasure of conquering the mighty peaks. Ordaz's success shook, if it did not entirely dispel, the superstition of the Indians and Aztecs that the mountain was the abode of mighty spirits who would not tolerate the presence of human beings, and would surely cause the immediate death of all who dared to trespass upon their sacred preserves.

The ascent of "Popo," for the breath-saving economist of time does not use the polysyllabic, rather awkward full name, is a difficult and tiring expedition. It is, too, by no means devoid of that element of danger which adds a desired spice to Alpine work. A part of the journey is now accomplished with whatever of speed and comfort a Mexican railway train affords. The tourist can entrain at the capital in the afternoon and reach the foot of the mountain (the expression being used relatively, for the station is about 9000 feet above tide-water) before night falls.

Here a comfortable hotel will be found, and the necessary arrangements may be made for the absolutely indispensable guides, required almost as much for the physical and personal assistance they render their patron as in showing him the safe way; and strangers are advised to take the guides assigned to them and *not* to rely on their own ability to choose. The actual ascent, to the summit and back to the hotel, is made in two days. The first is passed in going along a fair road, through pine forests and across ranches, with charming

scenery and magnificent views of "the Smoking Mountain" and his wife, "the White Woman."

A night is passed at the ranch-house of Tlamacas, the tourist's blankets being spread on straw mats and himself getting what comfort he can from a wooden block for a pillow. As it is always cold, a wood fire is kept burning all the time and clouds of smoke fill the room, because there is no chimney. The consequent discomfort and actual pain may be imagined. At four o'clock in the morning in summer, or five in winter, the real climb to the summit is begun, and after an hour or two the mules are given up. The trail crosses beds of gravel and scoriæ, which slip beneath the feet, making progress difficult, slow, and discouraging.

At a place called Cruces, the stranger is called upon to decide positively whether he will go on or turn back, this being the last chance to retreat, because the guides refuse to abandon the party after that. It is a steady hard pull right away to the top, and very soon after leaving Cruces the snow is encountered, for, being well within the tropics, the snow-line is very high.

The last pinch, of two hundred feet, is absolutely heart-breaking; but there is no choice now and one must go on, for to stand there and wait for the rest of the party (to sit down is impossible) would probably mean freezing to death. The rim of the crater, the apex, is usually reached about noon, and from that elevation the view is indescribable if the air is clear, as it is almost sure to be, especially in winter. The crater is an enormous pit, about 2000 feet across, and visitors may descend it quite a distance, 50 feet or so, although there is not much to reward one for risking suffocation from the sulphurous fumes; because "Popo,"

although not an active volcano, is by no means a "dead" mountain.

The return to the hotel at the railway station is made in about four hours, and most visitors are glad to put in two nights and one day resting. Upon payment of a reasonable sum, which used to be twenty-five *pesos*, a peso being the Mexican dollar, equivalent to fifty cents American, the tourist can make all financial arrangements for the trip before leaving Mexico City. He will thus secure a return railway ticket, hotel accommodations, mules, guide, lodging at the rest-house, food for the two days of the actual ascent and return, blankets, and everything he needs. "Tips" along the road and at the hotel have not yet been raised to an absurd scale, but the tendency of the average American tourist to senseless extravagance in this matter will doubtless assert itself here, as it has done in every other corner of the world.

A concession has been granted a company to work the immense deposits of sulphur in the crater of Popocatepetl, and some of the preliminaries have been attended to. If this scheme should be carried into active operation, there will probably be some sort of a mountain railway constructed. Such a thing would, of course, make the ascent much easier for the tourist; but it would rob the trip of much of its romantic attractiveness; and those who are enthusiastic about Alpine scrambling will deprecate the commercialising of Mexico's most attractive peak.

There is a pretty legend told about Popocatepetl, "the Smoking Mountain," and Ixtaccihuatl, "the Woman in White." Once they were living giants, husband and wife, but they did something which displeased the great gods and as punishment they were transformed into

mountains, yet not at once deprived of life. However, the woman died because of the severe punishment, and the shape of her body, it is said, may be traced in the contour of the mountain's crest and side. When the mountain is covered with white down below the line of perpetual snow, the resemblance can readily be imagined.

The man giant was condemned to everlasting life in his changed shape, and he must always gaze on the lifeless form of his beloved spouse. His grief is dreadful, and often he breaks forth in great sobs that shake his whole body, causing the earthquakes. Is the fact that formerly he would shed tears of fire (the lava streams) but has ceased to do this, a sign that his grief has become assuaged, that he no longer mourns for his beloved? The ascent of Ixtaccihuatl is such a comparatively easy task that few people have had much to say about it. Certainly, the same consideration for the climber is not shown at her base as is found in the hotel at "Popo Park." All writers seem to be agreed that the finest view of this wonderful pair of mountains is that which is had from the top of Chapultepec Hill, that suburb of Mexico City where stands the summer residence of the Republic's President.

From that same hill of Chapultepec, there is seen off to the northwest, and not very far away, the snow-capped Xinantecatl, called also the volcano of Toluca. Within historic times it has been known to break forth in violent, destructive eruption, but it now seems to be so completely extinct that in the crater there are two small lakes of fresh water, so pure as to be drinkable. The fact speaks for the absence of sulphur in quantity and indicates the improbability of revived activity.

As the traveller goes southward from the capital, with the intention of leaving the Valley of Anahuac,



THE LANDING AT TZINTZUNZAN, LAKE PATZCUARO

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he finds himself climbing up the Ajusco range of mountains which forms the southern boundary of the valley. Its highest peak is nearly 14,000 feet high. This, however, does not mean quite so much as it seems, for the reason that the railway crosses the summit of the range at an altitude of something like 10,000 feet. The rugged peak, to which the distinctive name of Mount Ajusca is given, is easily reached from the railway, and below its top a wonderful panorama is spread before the beholder. Aside from the fact that there are many great mountain peaks in sight, on a clear day, there is "a sea of rolling hills and ancient lava-flows miles in length, with here and there small lakes and Indian villages dotted over the valley, almost hidden between the mountains, the grayness of the scene brightened by emerald patches of sugar-cane."

The vigorous Alpine climber may include Ajusca in the itinerary from the capital which takes in Ixtacchuatl and Popocatepetl, or he may go on to the popular hill-resort of Cuernavaca and make that place the starting-point for a special expedition to Ajusca.

If the visitor who is fond of mountaineering arrives by steamer at Vera Cruz, his heart will throb with anticipation as he looks upon mighty Orizaba, probably the highest mountain in North America, with the possible exception of Mount McKinley. If, again, he is so fortunate as to approach the coast on a clear night, when the moon is quite or nearly full, the splendour of the scene will cause even a greater thrill of excitement. For Orizaba possesses a great advantage over the other famous Mexican mountains in that its full height asserts itself without being at all impaired by the fact that it is seen from a point which is already many thousand feet up from the sea, as is the case with those which

have just been mentioned. When it *can* be seen from the sea, this mountain's 18,314 feet stand out grandly.

Whether the tourist arrives in Mexico by sea or land, he will surely visit the town of Orizaba, on account of its interesting historical associations and the charming scenery in its immediate or proximate vicinity. He can, then, make the place his point of departure for the ascent of Mount Orizaba, and he can secure the services of competent guides, as well as provide himself with all things needed for the trip. Or he may go on to the small railway station of Esperanza, itself over 8000 feet above sea-level, whence he can proceed on muleback to the village of Chalchicamula. From that point a trail leads to the actual foot of the mountain (this, too, a mule can negotiate), and then the climb begins. It is a difficult task to get to the top and one's lungs must be in good condition; but it is not especially dangerous if one is an experienced alpinist, and one heeds carefully what the guides tell him. It is hardly necessary to add that the ascent takes the climber from the sub-tropical climate of the base, up through every climatic and botanic change to the absolutely polar conditions of the perpetually snow-capped summit. So far as we know, there is no rest-house along the trail, and this means at least one night in the open; but the guides or porters will carry along a supply of fuel to provide for this stop.

If the reader will glance at the map, he will scarcely need to be told that the City of Puebla is an attractive place for him, provided he has a liking for scaling lofty mountains. The full name of the town is, or ought to be, *Puebla de los Angeles*, "The City of the Angels." With one of the bands of early Spaniards there came a priest who had a dream in which he saw two angels marking off, with rod and chain, the streets of a city.

It was in a lovely, well-watered valley near great mountains crowned with perennial snow. He sought the place, and when he came to this plain he recognized it instantly. Telling his miraculous dream and identifying the site, he readily persuaded the Spaniards to build a town here.

Most of the mountains which have been already alluded to may readily be reached from Puebla, while there are a number of others that offer temptations which it will be hard for the enthusiast to resist; but there remains only one that we care to mention. Its name is given in various ways, Malinche, or Malintzi, or Malintzin, but all doubtless represent the Aztec attempt to pronounce Marina, the name given to Cortés' exceedingly useful secretary and interpreter, with whom his relations speedily became more than platonic. The statement that her original name was Malina is too suspicious. The mountain is not far east of Puebla City, and in the afternoon, when the setting sun strikes its snow-capped summit, over 12,000 feet above sea-level, the sight is most attractive.

There seems to be some confusion as to the mountain, Colima. This is due to the fact that there are two peaks which are separated by a considerable distance although they may be said to be one very large mountain. The lower is the only really active volcano in the Republic, while the higher seems to have been throughout all historic times, and is now, an extinct cone. The volcano has been in active and destructive eruption so recently that there is great danger in attempting to ascend it. The outbursts have been so terrific, without adequate preliminary symptoms or warnings giving time to escape, that a party attempting to reach the top is in peril all the while. The ascent of the higher peak is not difficult,

nor is it very dangerous, provided always that some experience is combined with caution. The reward is great, because the view is wide and comprehensive, especially notable for the gorgeous sunset effects. People who have been favoured with clear weather find it difficult to describe the sunset scene from the top of Colima in language which does not carry with it the risk of seeming to be extravagant; and yet, when conditions are favourable, it is impossible to overpraise the marvellous sight. The chances of getting this reward are greatly on the side of the tourist who climbs to the top. Inasmuch as the double mountain is some twenty-five miles from the city of Colima and there are not satisfactory provisions made for the accommodation of visitors (unless these have been very recently installed), the trip is rather a hard one, aside from the actual climb.

Only a mere hint of Mexico's possibilities for those who like to climb mountains has been given here, and it will be noted that the many peaks of respectable altitude in the southern part of the country have not been described. There is hardly a state of the Republic which will not be found to offer some inducement; and if the work is deemed insufficiently difficult and dangerous to arouse the enthusiasm of a hardy conqueror of mountains, there will always be the reward of panorama and outlook to repay the effort to get to the top.

CHAPTER XV

FOREIGN RELATIONS

WE purpose making this chapter rather broader in scope than the words of the title are usually taken to mean; that is, in this particular case, Mexico's official relations with the Governments of other nations; because we intend to include in it something of Mexicans' relations at home with peoples from other lands, and the influence exerted both ways by that association. The diplomatic and kindred intercourse which the Republic has had with European states has already been sufficiently discussed, while that with the United States of America will be briefly considered in later chapters.

That the patriotic Mexicans were heartily in sympathy with the effort of the other Spanish colonies in America (both Central and Southern) to achieve independence, goes without saying: as, too, does the fact that whatever moral or material assistance they could render to their Central and South American friends was given cheerfully. It was, in the very nature of the case, mainly moral support, because at the time of the general revolution and secession of the Spanish-American colonies, Mexico was too poor to do more than finance her own enterprise in these lines.

The people of what is now called narrowly Central America (for it has been shown that a very wide strip of Mexico itself is in geographical Central America), remained under the Spanish Government for a very

short time after Mexico had asserted her independence. This was doubtless because they had not sufficient confidence in their military or financial ability to engage successfully in the war with Spain which the assertion of independence would assuredly provoke. It is understood, of course, that Mexico assumed she was acting for the whole of New Spain: that is, what was left of it northward from the Isthmus of Panama. But when the Mexicans demonstrated their ability to beard the Spaniards, those Central American states proclaimed their absolute independence, seceding from Mexico in 1823.

An important difference must be noted in the character of the movement for independence in Mexico (including now the present Central American Republics), and that which inspired the South American colonists. In Mexico, the upper classes may not have had the same opportunity to read broadening books that were forbidden by the Inquisition, which the same classes in South America had or made for themselves with inevitable results. Possibly the former were not so well educated as the latter; they were certainly more under the domination of the Romish clergy, and that did not make for general information. Or it may be that the Mexican upper classes derived greater personal advantages from Spanish rule than did their fellows in South America.

But at any rate, it is true that in Mexico these classes sided with the Spanish king and raised the most decided objection to the cause of independence. Whereas in South America, it was just these classes who became imbued with the spirit of independence and who finally became the leaders in the movement to achieve it. In Mexico, the leaders were poor priests who had sprung

from the despised natives; their support came from the masses. In South America, the lower classes, because of their ignorance and prejudice, generally favoured the existing condition of things, and at first opposed independence.

But the point in which Mexico (that is, inclusive of all Central America) differed most from the other Spanish-American colonies, was the attitude which the leaders in the movement for independence assumed towards the Indians. In South America, a number of Indian insurrections took place and always it was the intention of the natives, had they been successful, to revert to the old form of government and drive out the Spanish or creole rulers. This really amounted to attempting a war of races, and its first effect was to deprive themselves of all assistance from the creoles.

When, therefore, it came to a war for independence in South America, the Indians, remembering the indifference displayed towards their own effort, remained passive, so that the movement was headed and carried out almost exclusively by the creoles. On the other hand, there never was, in Mexico, an Indian insurrection with the avowed intention of re-establishing the Aztec domination, and the Indians, on the contrary, assisted the creoles in the war for independence. Indeed, the Indians were the main reliance of the insurrectionists, not only for the rank and file of the armies that successfully accomplished Mexican independence, but for most of the competent leaders.

We should not leave the subject without noting the wide difference between the attitude of the Roman Catholic clergy in Mexico and that of their co-religionists in South American Spanish colonies. In the former they were the implacable opponents of every act tending

towards independence; while in South America, the priests gave assistance to the insurrectionists and were even accused by loyal Spanish officials of fomenting rebellion. This difference of attitude gave a curious aspect to the relations between Mexico and her sister colonies.*

While the history of Mexico's internal affairs shows an almost unbroken record of armed disturbance, revolution, and counter-revolution, from 1821 to 1876, it is curious, and yet pleasing, to note that her intercourse with her neighbours in Central America was nearly always in the direction of peace. The date of 1821 marks the independence of the country and the throwing off of the Spanish yoke, but it also introduced a condition of domestic turbulence which lasted until Porfirio Diaz became President, and was able to check the disorder.

As a matter of fact, however, there was very little diplomatic intercourse between Mexico and the other states of Central America during those years. At intervals of the period from 1888 to 1895, there was serious friction between the officials and citizens of the two republics, along the border between Mexico and Guatemala, concerning the exact boundary between the two countries. Matters reached such an acute stage, that in 1893 both sides made preparations for war. But Guatemala, realising that Mexico was much the stronger in armed force, and better prepared, financially, to carry on a war, yielded the points at issue and a treaty, signed on the 1st of April, 1895, settled the matter amicably and, it is to be assumed, permanently.

Although perhaps not precisely pertinent, it may be well to note here, that in 1895, when trouble over the Venezuelan boundary was impending between the

* Cf. Romero, "Genesis of Mexican Independence."

United States of America and Great Britain, threatening to bring about war, Mexico urged firm adherence to the principles of the Monroe Doctrine. The Government formally announced its opinion that the financial and military burdens of maintaining those principles should not be thrown upon the shoulders of the United States alone; but that, should necessity arise for supporting them with armed force, all American powers should participate. Personally, we are of the opinion that it was the sanity of the statesmen in the two great English-speaking nations which brought this matter to sensible adjustment; yet it is not impossible that the prospect (even if remote) of a great American alliance opposed to her may have exerted some influence upon Great Britain.

In 1901, the first Pan-American Congress was convened in the City of Mexico. This was not precisely the first of these assemblages, for in October, 1889, there had been such a meeting in Washington, U.S.A., at which all the American states were represented. Mexico has always been represented at the meetings of this Congress, as she was at the important one held at Rio de Janeiro, in 1906, and has taken an active and intelligent part in the proceedings.

If these gatherings have not been productive of much serious benefit to the countries participating and the world at large (although that is mainly a question for individual opinion to decide), they have certainly demonstrated the imperative necessity for the use of *one* medium of communication. Either English or Spanish should be the one and the *only* language permitted. Inasmuch as the United States now has so much to do with Spanish-speaking peoples, it seems manifestly proper that Spanish should be the official

language of the Pan-American Congress. But whether English or Spanish, it ought to be made an inflexible rule that delegates should have fluency of speech in that which is agreed upon.

In 1907, there was, for a time, some danger of war between Mexico and Guatemala, because an ex-president of the latter country had been murdered in Mexico by one of his compatriots, and a request for extradition failed to accomplish anything; but the affair was smoothed over without recourse to arms. In that same year, Mexico displayed her desire to maintain general peace by inducing the Central American Republics to stop a war. It is to be regretted that her efforts in the same direction with other parallel cases, have not been equally successful.

That one of Mexico's foreign entanglements soon after establishing her independence, received the cognomen of "The Pastry War," must excite a smile of amusement, although the trouble threatened, for a time, to bring about serious results. Two rival Masonic factions, called locally *Escoceses* (because they gave allegiance to the Scottish Rite), and including in its members Monarchists and Centralists; and *Yorkinos* (because they received their ritual from New York City), who were Liberals, had gone from a squabble over ritual to armed conflict about politics. During the confusion, several foreign shops in the capital were pillaged; one of them being that of a French baker, whose claim for indemnity, as is always the case in such episodes, was wildly extravagant. This gave a basis for some still more exorbitant demands by the French Government, ten years later, and the war with France, called "The Pastry War." The claims led also to a grave scandal in which Mexican statesmen, French diplomats,



THE ISTHMUS OF TEHUANTEPEC

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and European merchants were involved. Claims that had been improperly expanded until they represented the sum of \$750,000 were paid with bonds amounting in value to \$15,000,000.

In 1829, a Spanish naval and military expedition was sent to reconquer Mexico, but it was successfully met at Tampico by General Santa Ana, and the would-be conquerors retired discomfited. This episode was due to the fact that a Mexican squadron, commanded by an American naval officer, David Porter, the ranking officer in the Mexican navy from 1826 to 1829, had made attacks, that were unpleasantly like piracy, upon Spanish ships off the coast of Cuba. It is hardly necessary to state that this David Porter was not the Admiral David Dixon Porter of Civil War fame, although he was his father.

On the 25th of May, 1908, there was established at Cartago, a pleasantly located hill town in Costa Rica, even if it has a disagreeable fame for frequent earthquakes, the permanent Central American Court of Arbitration, provided for by the terms of treaties which had been signed at Washington, D.C., in December of the preceding year. Mexico took an active part in accomplishing this Court, which ought to be an extremely useful and important factor in preserving peace among the Republics of Central America. She has always evinced her willingness and even anxiety to co-operate with the United States in bringing about the results contemplated by this act of establishing the Court. That the success of neither the United States nor Mexico has been absolute, in no way reflects upon the good intentions of either, for, apparently, no human power can restrain the Central American Republics from domestic political broils, and revolutions, or from fight-

ing with one another, on the pettiest pretext. Unfortunately, Mexico, too, has not been able to conduct herself so as to be entirely free from this charge.

On the 17th of October, 1909, President Taft and President Diaz exchanged friendly calls at El Paso, Texas; the head of the younger, smaller Republic consenting to leave his domain in order to meet and to do honour to the chief magistrate of his country's great prototype. It was a graceful act, thoroughly consistent with the peaceful aspirations of Porfirio Diaz. That he should, within a comparatively short time, be an exile from his own Republic, is a saddening comment upon the stability of Mexican political institutions.

If this sketch of Mexico's relations with some other parts of the world is brief and fragmentary, it at least shows that it has been, and is, the wish of such astute statesmen as Diaz to maintain peaceful relations whenever this can be done without loss of national dignity or honour.

Before closing this part of the present chapter, it is well to comment briefly upon the disappointment usually expressed by Mexican historians at the delay on the part of the nations of Europe, outside the direct or indirect influence of the Holy Alliance, in recognising the independence of Mexico. For the delay, the Mexicans, not unnaturally, hold the United States of America mainly responsible; and yet it was scarcely possible for the United States to be prompter than she was in this recognition. The belligerent rights of the Mexicans, as well as those of the peoples of all the other Spanish-American colonies, had been promptly admitted, thus permitting of assistance in material ways. But full recognition of independence by the United States would have connoted a state of affairs which did not actually

exist until at least two years after 1821; and anything resembling precipitancy in such an important matter might well have been construed by Spain as an unfriendly act towards a Government with which Washington was at peace. That Great Britain, especially, had grave doubts as to the stability of the Republic of Mexico, should not surprise the careful student, and ought not to aggrieve Mexicans.

In considering the reciprocal influence of Mexicans and strangers in the country itself, as being a factor in foreign relations, we must be pardoned if there appears a tendency towards the jocose in what is written. For when one stops to think of how few of the thousands of visitors, who go to Mexico every year, take the trouble to learn the Spanish language, so that they may be able to converse freely with the people, it is astonishing that so few serious *contretemps* have taken place as are recorded. Doubtless there have been plenty of awkward or amusing misunderstandings that never did and never will get into print.

Since by far the majority of strangers in Mexico are Americans,* let us begin with them, and get over the disagreeable first. It is a curious fact that the strongest point of resemblance between the American and his British cousin, is his inability or unwillingness to adapt himself to strange conditions and to accept what the people of a country that happens to be new to him, insist upon as the right way to do a thing, regardless of the stranger's prejudice. We refer to an amusing confirmation of this statement *apropos* Mexico, in Mr. John C. Van Dyke's book.†

* Excluding Spaniards, Central and South Americans, Chinese and Japanese, there were, a few years ago, over 17,000 Americans out of a total of some 25,000.

† See bibliography.

In Mexico all English-speaking strangers are assumed to be and are called *Americanos*; just as in France the Americans, unless they establish their identity by some peculiar intonation or locution, are *les Anglais*. This puts a burden of responsibility upon the American which should be more carefully borne than it is, in order that the influence may make for good. The Americanisation of Mexico is progressing very rapidly, and with this comes a broadening use of the English language. As this is so, the newly arrived American should be careful not to use the word "Greaser" in speaking of the people. It is opprobrious, hurts the feelings of the sensitive Mexicans, and never fails to bring trouble to the user.

There is little doubt that the intercourse between Americans and Mexicans has been the prime cause of the material advance of the Republic; it is doubtful if it has done much to benefit Mexico socially or morally. On the other hand, the gentleness and courtesy of the Mexicans has often exerted a most beneficent influence upon the stranger. The two taken together give a clue to that phase of Mexico's relations with foreigners to which we wished to direct attention. If the one can be improved the result is sure to be for the good of the whole world.

CHAPTER XVI

AMERICAN INFLUENCE: POLITICAL AND PERSONAL

A RECENT estimate of the amount of American capital already invested in Mexico, made by Mr. Marion Letcher, the American Consul at Progreso, State of Yucatan, put the sum at a total of over one thousand million dollars, or, as some would say, more than a billion. It is not intended to question Mr. Letcher's estimate, or to impugn his information; only, it would have been more satisfactory had the statement come from the capital of Mexico, where the statistician would have opportunity to verify by reference to official records. In Mexico City there are not only the State archives, but many of the great enterprises have their head offices there. These latter are, by the laws of the land, compelled to give some information to the Government, and, within reason, those returns are accessible to responsible investigators.

It is safe to say that the sum mentioned represents the big investments only, the railways, mines, and milling properties, reduction works, and the various enterprises allied with the mining industry, banks, stock ranches, great agricultural estates, municipal improvements, large industries, and all such things that present themselves conspicuously to the eyes of the visitor, or that appeal to the statistician with special force.

But there are thousands and thousands more of American dollars invested in Mexico by all kinds of people

whose individual capital is such a small matter as not to attract much attention. For everywhere in the land there are evidences of these smaller investments indicating the presence of Americans as residents, more or less permanent. Each one stands for a certain sum of capital invested. It may be only a few hundred dollars in the individual case, but the aggregate amounts to a very large sum. In the capital, for example, there are American lawyers, doctors, dentists, merchants, shopkeepers, and all sorts of representatives of small capital. The same thing, local conditions being considered, may be said of every town of any size in the Republic.

One thing that seems to justify the presumption that these small matters have been left out of Mr. Letcher's tables, is the fact that he estimates the sum invested in railways to be \$645,000,000, leaving only \$355,000,000 to represent the other *big* properties, and it would not be difficult to name mines and kindred enterprises, ranches, etc., that would aggregate this sum in their capitals invested.

When Ulysses S. Grant was in Mexico, on active service during the Mexican War, he declared himself greatly impressed with the attractive possibilities for development in mining, stock-raising, and agriculture in the widest and most varied aspects. He saw, too, that with development along those lines must, of necessity, come co-ordinate improvement of facilities for transportation, circulation, urban and suburban facilities of all kinds, and industries of every sort. He is quoted, by many writers on Mexico, as having said, when he made another visit to that country after he had been President of the United States, that he thought it quite possible that as much as \$500,000,000 might

be safely and profitably invested; but he himself was rather startled at the size of the fund he had been reported as naming. At present there is already invested in railways alone, a good deal more than the sum General Grant mentioned for all enterprises, and the end is not yet.

If the assurances of the Mexican Government are verified that the existing state of revolution and confusion is to be stopped speedily and without American intervention; and if, then, the demands are not exorbitant for indemnity, by investors whose property, in the States of the Republic where the greatest damage has been done, has been destroyed or impaired, there are opportunities yet awaiting the investor in this section which will absorb very many more millions of American or European capital.

It may be out of place to offer a suggestion; but the opportunity to do so here is not easily resisted. It is to be hoped that when peace is restored in Mexico, and the Government on Chapultepec Hill is again recognised as supreme, the demands for reparation will be reasonable and equitable. An attempt to wring from the Mexican Treasury excessive compensation for lives lost, mental stress, property destroyed or impaired, or temporary loss of revenue, will almost surely incite general opposition and bring about a state of affairs much worse than anything which has been known for the past year or more; because it will be united in its opposition to all foreigners, and will not discriminate.

From all pertinent information that is available, it is pleasing to assume that the whole of that enormous sum of \$645,000,000, which Consul Letcher asserts is invested in railways, is paying from fair to handsome returns. Precise statistics of passenger and freight

traffic, on what may be called "public lines," are not accessible for the last year or so; but previous to 1909 the patronage which the travelling public bestowed was quite sufficient to ensure satisfactory dividends, and there is no reason whatever to suppose that there has been any diminution.

It is more than likely that the great sum, which Consul Letcher names as representing American investments in Mexico, includes a considerable sum of Canadian money; for it is no secret that officials of the Canadian Pacific Railway have large interests in Mexican railways, ranches, industries. That particular Canadian line is now so well equipped that the working staff is competent to look after the maintenance, betterment, and expansion. Some of the largest and wealthiest shareholders, and their friends, have therefore turned their attention to other fields than Canada. Mexico has held out the most alluring inducements and, barring such accidents as have recently happened, their investments are safe. It certainly looks to a careful observer as if a great many British capitalists are entrusting funds to Canadians, and that these have decided that Mexico is a more promising place than is the Dominion itself. Due consideration is given to enterprises in Canada like the Canadian Northern, Grand Trunk extension, and others; all of which are absorbing large amounts of British funds.

But if there have been a billion dollars of United States and Canadian capital supplied to promote Mexican enterprises of all sorts and kinds, the total of foreign investments must be much greater than even that immense sum. We know that British, French, and German capitalists also have made considerable investments, beginning with the Mexican Railway, the original

line (but now very much expanded) from Vera Cruz to Mexico City; including the Tehuantepec Railway and its harbour auxiliaries on both oceans, besides many other valuable and profitable concessions.

Enough has been said of the moral and political influence exerted upon the Mexicans by the successful effort of the thirteen British colonies in eastern-central North America to achieve their independence; and of the close attention given to the methods followed by the young United States of America to adjust the Government of the new nation to the strange conditions which confronted it. It is sufficient to add here that these are subjects which seem never to lose their attraction for the young men of Mexico who aspire to be of some use to their country. Our interest is now with more modern affairs of the Republic itself.

It demands that a needle shall have a normally sharp point, if it is to be put down on the map of Mexico without touching some American investment, or the sphere of influence of that investment. American interests are found everywhere. After the colossal enterprises that have already been referred to, we pass on down to the signboards in the city streets. They are often the American sign itself, in plain English without any attempt at translation: "Waltham Watches," "The American Watch Company," "American Tailor," "Cream of Wheat," "New York Life Insurance Company"; or, for the convenience of possible customers who are not yet up-to-date and refuse to heed anything but the Spanish language, it will be *La Maquina Singer*, literally, "The Machine Singer," and everybody knows that is the Singer Sewing Machine; or *La Maquina Escribir Underwood*, which, literally, is "the machine to write Underwood," and it is hardly neces-

sary to say that means "The Underwood Typewriter," and there are hundreds of others.

American doctors and dentists are popular in the Republic of Mexico; for here will be seen a modest door-plate inscribed "Dr. A., American Physician," or there a somewhat more pretentious one, for such the etiquette of the profession permits, "Dr. X., American Dentist." "English spoken here" now meets the visitor's eye far more frequently in Mexico, and not alone in the capital by any means, than it does in any part of the continent of Europe. The doubtless well-intentioned attempt to make such signs more precise and inviting by phrasing them "American spoken here," was very promptly and properly discouraged by resident Americans.

The stores or shops belonging to and run by Americans rarely go to the trouble of making themselves known through the medium of the vernacular, except in newspaper advertisements. But "The United States Grocery Company" or the "American-Mexican Canning Company" asserts itself in just those English words. Imitation being the sincerest flattery, it is not surprising that many purely Spanish or Mexican shops, spurred on to unusual and unnatural activity by the successful rivalry of their American competitors, now translate into Spanish the seductive "Bargain Day," or "25% Reduction This Week," or "Cut Prices in All Lines This Week." These are displayed conspicuously and sometimes the too literal translation produces amusing and bewildering jargon.

There is not naturally much "hustle" in the pure Castilian blood; nor is it conspicuous in the Mexican Creole. Strange as it must sound, there is more likelihood of a pure-blooded Indian, when he gets the chance,



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displaying that characteristic of "hustle," which is claimed to be so typical of the advanced American in all parts of the world; only the Indian does not often get the chance. But the hustling American must watch himself closely in Mexico. It is astonishing how quickly the Spanish spirit of *hasta la mañana*, "until to-morrow," gets into the Yankee blood even, when the whole atmosphere is surcharged with the quality that seems to compel people "never to do to-day what can be put off till the morrow."

Mexico still needs capital to continue the good work of developing her natural resources, and the example of American influence in doing that work in the best way. That capital may be in small amounts as well as in large ones. When the development has progressed, it cannot but be that immigrants will arrive in the country in large numbers. Conditions will be favourable, when certain necessary changes have been brought about, for those who have a small amount of cash capital and a large fund of that which is even better, a combination of muscle, industry, and determination. To make known properly the possibilities of the country for intending immigrants of that class, something must be done to check the "schemers."

These are men who profess to have secured mining, agricultural, or industrial rights which they are willing to share with others who will supply cash capital. No real capitalists are caught by such sharpers, because they have their own reliable experts to make a crucial examination of any enterprise before they put money into it. But many a man, and woman, too, has been robbed of his or her little all by fictitious advertisements of wonderful Mexican "schemes." The United States Government has exerted itself to protect such trusting,

ignorant people from swindlers, and there are now several of the latter in prison as just punishment. The Mexican Government needs better, that is more reliable, advertising mediums and well-informed, truthful press-agents to tell strangers the plain truth about the Republic's opportunities.

So far as going from the United States into Mexico is concerned, it is, on the whole, better for the farmer or artisan to stay where he is, rather than to take the responsibility of change entirely upon himself. The conditions of life in the country districts of Mexico, where such a settler is likely to find the best opportunity for making a success, are very primitive as compared with what is to be found in the ordinary regions of the same general character at home.

In addition to the differences between the people, and those of language and education, there are many peculiar embarrassments for the stranger in the rural districts of Mexico. If he goes to a district where there are Indians only, no Creoles or Spaniards, there are still other and special drawbacks. If the settler goes to the "hot lands," which are the most fertile and in every way yield the best returns for labour expended, the climate is a severe trial. There, too, the insects and reptiles make life a burden; and the diseases which are not yet absolutely controlled are a deterrent. Labour, because it is practically impossible for the northern immigrant to do his own field-work, is another serious difficulty. While it is cheap and abundant, of its kind — and even the Mexicans themselves have little to say in praise of this subject — in the upper, temperate zones, it is scarce, and quite uncontrollable in the fertile and prolific hot lands.

Another serious drawback for the agricultural or

stock-raising immigrant is the matter of securing land. A large portion of the public domain has already been sold or conceded. The surveys of both the public lands that remain undisposed of as well as of private estates, have not been made satisfactorily, so that land cannot easily be bought in small lots; while to lease is too risky. The owners of large estates, as a rule, adhere to the old custom of dealing with them as great *haciendas*, and they are unwilling to divide them into small plots for sale. The Indians, who still hold large tracts in various parts of the country, can rarely be induced to sell at all; and they do not cultivate their holdings in a manner which contributes towards Mexico's best development.

United States Consular Reports indicate that coffee planting may be made a very profitable industry in Mexico, and that it is an industry in which those who have not a very large sum of ready money may engage successfully. It requires, however, that the would-be planter shall have sufficient capital to secure the land, to prepare and plant, and then live for the three or four years that must be passed before the trees yield berries enough to provide a living. This enterprise seems to be beyond the attainment of the immigrant with only small means. Most people appear to think that coffee is best grown in Mexico's hot lands, where the trees require to be shaded; but competent authorities declare that a plantation in that zone costs more to start and to maintain, and also yields less profit than one in the temperate zone, just below the frost line.

The fact of American influence in Mexico has been demonstrated, certainly in so far as the great enterprises are concerned; and it has been shown that such influence is considerable and is growing in some of the

smaller affairs of life. To complete the Americanisation of the country in a way which shall not tend to political disturbance, nor arouse the jealousy of the loyal Mexicans, this influence may be spread widely by quiet precept and practice. Industry, as the ordinary Anglo-Saxon interprets the word, is not popular with Spaniard, Mexican Creole, or Indian; and the physical inertia, which this statement implies, must be overcome if Mexico is to be the nation that such men as Porfirio Diaz have in mind.

This change may be wrought in two ways: by radical and prompt supplanting of old methods and manners with something new and strenuous; or by the gradual infiltration of example. It seems to us that the latter is so much preferable as to leave the former without reason for being. It is from the United States that this example can best come; and good Mexicans themselves display no resentment when American influence is thus exerted.

CHAPTER XVII

THE PAST ONE HUNDRED YEARS

JUST one hundred and one years ago, 1812, the Spanish Cortes (cortès, literally "courts," the national assembly or legislature of that country) adopted a constitution which contemplated many important reforms. The most radical of these were: freedom of the press, suppression of the Inquisition, closing of the monasteries and convents, expulsion of the Jesuits, and the cutting off of all privileges belonging exclusively to army officers and the nobility. Above all in importance, however, was the clause which provided that the people were to be invested with the power of self-government.

This happy state of affairs did not continue for long; too soon another revolution broke out and Ferdinand VII. was again, in 1814, seated on the throne as firm a believer as ever in "The right divine of kings to govern wrong." * He overturned all the Cortes had done for the people, revived the Inquisition, and caused a civil war that lasted six years. In 1820, the people once more regained their power and compelled the king to swear to support the constitution. This promise was no sooner made than it was broken, and Spain was as much of a despotism as ever.

The people of Mexico, some Spaniards, most Creoles, and all educated Indians, were watching Spain most intently at this time. They were, too, following closely developments in the United States of America; from

* Pope, "The Dunciad," Book IV., line 188.

which they received tremendous inspiration. The Mexican Creoles especially were dissatisfied with conditions in their country; but it was with persons rather than with principles. They asked that natives, particularly native-born sons of pure Spanish parents, should have an equal share with foreigners in the management of colonial affairs. This reasonable request was vehemently opposed by the *gachupines*.

This curious word has an interesting etymology. When the Indians first saw the mounted Spaniards, they looked upon them as divine creatures and called them *gatzopins*, an epithet equivalent to our *centaur*. This word was subsequently corrupted into *gachupines*, and applied to the Spanish officials who always went about mounted on horses. These *gachupines* were considered aliens, and such they truly were. All the honours and emoluments of Church and State were reserved for this privileged class; every law was intended to confer benefit upon them.

While the true foreigners, the Spaniards born in Castile, and the semi-foreigners, the Creoles, were thus quarreling among themselves over questions of rank, privilege, and precedence, they little realised that they were living over a social volcano that was about to burst forth.

Little by little the burden of servitude laid upon the shoulders of the Indians, had been increased until it became unendurable; but a champion was coming. On the 8th of May, 1753, there was born, somewhere in the State of Guanajuato, an Indian boy, afterwards known (and now revered) as Miguel Hidalgo y Costilla. He received as good an education as was then given to any native, studied for the Church, took orders, and eventually became curate of the little village of Dolores.

In 1808, the Spanish officials were amazed and startled when they discovered that a plot had been formed among the Indians to secure the independence of Mexico, and to gain for themselves a place in the management of the State's affairs to which they justly believed themselves entitled. In September, 1810, Hidalgo placed himself, or was placed, at the head of the movement, and he proclaimed a general revolution against the Spanish administration. He was not successful, we know, but he gave his life as a martyr for the cause he had espoused. After his forces had sustained a severe defeat at the hands of the Spaniards, he was trying to get across the border into the United States, hoping to secure shelter there until his plans could be matured and his followers re-organised. But such was the dread of the prelates and the Inquisition among some of the Indians, that he was betrayed and captured, deposed from the priesthood, excommunicated, and shot at Chihuahua, July 30, 1811. The bell of his little parish church was brought to Mexico City in 1896 and hung over the main entrance to the Palace. On the night of the 15th of September, each year, it is rung with great ceremony by the President, and the Plaza in front of the Palace is filled with an immense crowd.

But the cause for which Hidalgo died did not fail; others took up the task, although success came eventually rather through diplomatic compromise than martial victory. It was Iturbide's cleverness and his "plan of Iguala," which brought about Mexican independence. Peace did not at once spread her white wings over all Mexico. Iturbide made himself almost as obnoxious to the people as had the Spanish viceroys and the other *gachupines*. As emperor Agustin I. he became a veritable autocrat; he surrounded himself with a new

order of nobility, drawn from the Creoles and Indians, who were as high and mighty and wore as gorgeous regalia as ever did the Spaniards. Ere long he won from the northern provinces the title of "The Usurper Iturbide," and such pressure was brought to bear that in March, 1823, only ten months after he had been crowned emperor, he abdicated to the old Congress. With strange, yet perhaps commendable generosity, Congress overlooked much that he had done, and was content to exile him on a pension of twenty thousand dollars a year. It has already been told how he was unable to remain abroad, but tried to return to Mexico and was shot.

In 1824, Mexico, for the first time, decided to become a Republic, and was formally recognised as such by Spain. Independence had been recognised by the United States in 1822, and gradually the other great powers followed suit. The constitution which the National Congress, representing the whole country, adopted was patterned after that of the United States. Yet the legislators showed themselves singularly ignorant of one of the first principles of true republican liberty. All religions except the Roman Catholic faith were prohibited; the property of the clergy was put beyond the reach of the secular laws, and — most marvellous of all — no one but a *gachupin* was permitted to hold any of the high offices in the Church. It is needless to say that these subversions of republican liberty speedily gave rise to yet further disturbance and revolution.

The final act of expelling the Spaniards officially was the hauling down of the Spanish flag over the Castle of San Juan de Ulúa (or Ulloa) in the harbour of Vera Cruz, on November 19, 1825. When the Spanish officer handed over the keys of the fortress to the representa-



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tive of the Mexican Government, the receiver was General Barrancas, the husband of a lineal descendant of the Aztec monarch, Montezuma II. The irony of Fate!

If Mexico was then recognised as a member of the family of nations, it would not be correct to say that in 1824 she entered upon a career of peaceful development and prosperity. The superficial reader will quite naturally assume that the almost constant conflicts which shook the Republic until the second election of President Porfirio Diaz, in 1884, were those between rival generals struggling to gain, first, command of all the Republic's armed forces; and, second, control of the Central Government. But in reality there were persistent quarrels, often bloody ones, between the privileged class, the clergy with whom were usually associated the greater part of the army, and the mass of the Creoles with a few civilised Indians. Later the great contesting parties resolved themselves into Centralists, identical with the army, the Church, and supporters of these, and Federalists who struggled for republican institutions and local self-government.

Mexico's condition of almost incessant domestic turmoil from 1824 to 1846 has already been commented upon. These internal broils were the result of disputed elections, and when we consider the status of the country, as to civilisation and education, it is not surprising that the abuse of the franchise was often flagrant. Doubtless the common charge of bribery and corruption had too good a foundation in fact. It seems hardly necessary to attempt a careful and complete discussion of the innumerable outbreaks, and we pass on to 1846.

Then, Mexico was face to face with the United States over Texas. Concisely stated, the events which led

up to this unhappy state of affairs, which had their initiative in the land grant to Stephen Austin, in 1820, and the settlement from the United States, may be given thus: the Mexican Government, when the Republic was established, prohibited slavery by its first constitution; but in the extreme northern part of the country, that is to say Texas, this prohibition had been ignored, especially in the matter of African slaves.

But the growing public sentiment against all class distinctions led to the re-enactment, in 1825, of an old law prohibiting the importation and sale of slaves. In 1827, Texas and Coahuila, then governed locally by a joint Legislature, passed a similar law, and, besides, freedom was given children born of slave parents in those States after that date. In 1829, every slave in the entire Republic was declared free.

This opposition to slavery did not at all please the American colonists in Texas, whose greatest ambition was to make that territory a "slave state." The avowed purpose of the Texans to separate from the Mexican Republic, led the Central Government to forbid further immigration from the northern United States. This was in 1830 and it promptly brought about border war, the separation of Texas from Coahuila, and at last to the declaration of Texas' independence, which was recognised by France, Great Britain, and the United States. It is hardly necessary to say that the promptness with which the recognition was enacted, is adversely criticised by many authorities on international law and equity.

Fifty of the fifty-seven signers of Texas' Declaration of Independence, had been citizens of the United States and men who were pledged to extend the area of slavery. One of the earliest acts of the Congress of the "Lone

Star" Republic, was to pass a law declaring slavery perpetual. The secession of Texas led at once to war between the two republics, in which Mexico lost more territory, and in which a condition of lawlessness was revealed which was truly shocking.

The annexation of Texas by the United States, in 1845, brought about war between the United States and Mexico, the Mexican War, of which General Ulysses S. Grant, then a lieutenant in the regular army, has said that it was the most unholy and unjust war ever waged by a strong nation against a weaker one. From that war, Mexico emerged defeated, sadly impoverished, and checked in her effort towards development.

The post-Mexican-war period was the time when the great struggle between State and Church occurred, in which the people, led by Benito Juarez, were victors.

On the 5th of February, 1857, a new Constitution was adopted in which provision was made for the separation of State and Church, for complete toleration of all religions, and other kindred matters. Immediately Congress passed a law confiscating Church property, closing the monasteries and convents, and restricting the privileges of the Church. War at once ensued between the Clerical and the Liberal parties. This was bad enough, but one of the indirect results was the appearance of bandits in all parts of the country, whose depredations included attacks upon foreigners and their property. Many persons were killed, and we have already mentioned one of the episodes as giving provocation for the "Pastry War."

The suspension of payment of interest on the National bonds, gave excuse for European intervention. Then followed the Maximilian attempt to establish an empire, which resulted disastrously in every way, for not only

was there great, and needless, loss of life and destruction of property, but the whole influence was bad and destructive of material progress. The conclusion of this unhappy episode showed Juarez in power and ere long something like order coming to Mexico.

Benito Juarez died in 1872. If students differ much in their opinions of this man, some condemning his harshness towards Maximilian, others his attacks upon the Roman Catholic Church; while yet more justify him in all these matters, it must be remembered that the Archduke was supported by the Romish clergy, and that the terrible state of affairs in Mexico half a century ago, was due to the acts of the Roman Catholics, then in control of the Government. ?

After Juarez's death came the inevitable revolution. It was a short affair and not noticeably disastrous, and in 1876 General Porfirio Diaz became President. With the exception of the term, 1880 to 1884, of President General Manuel Gonzalez, Diaz served continuously until 1911. There had been a provision in the Constitution of 1857 which forbade a President succeeding himself, yet not declaring him ineligible to re-election. An amendment was passed abrogating this provision especially that Diaz might continue in office. How much his personal influence was responsible for this, or whether he did or did not act the dictator to keep himself in power, is quite immaterial. Peace and prosperity at home, honour and credit abroad were ample justification. Of events since Porfirio Diaz was compelled to leave his country surreptitiously, it is manifestly unwise to speak, since they are not yet history and surmise may be left to the concluding chapter.

The material development of Mexico from 1824 to 1878 was really insignificant; in the circumstances it

could not possibly have been great. In the latter year President Diaz succeeded in convincing his fellow-countrymen that it was absolutely necessary to provide the land with railway and telegraphic facilities; and then began the really active development of Mexico. In 1910 there were 15,350 miles of railway in operation, of which the Government owned or controlled more than one-half. In 1910 there were over 25,000 miles of telegraph lines, nearly all belonging to the Government. Wireless telegraphy stations have also been equipped, in addition to the land lines and the many submarine cables.

Of Mexico's direct interest in overseas commerce, there is nothing to say. The Mexicans are not sailors and they are content to leave this department entirely in the hands of the maritime nations whose steamers come and go at the ports of Mexico in immense numbers. To what has been said or suggested it should be added that Mexico, which had been considered a non-manufacturing country, has responded surprisingly to President Diaz's effort to develop production in this line, making use of raw materials which are supplied by nature.

The progress made in education has been great in the last quarter of a century. Unfortunately reliable statistics up to date are not available; but there is evidence to show that the number of public schools is over ten thousand, and the attendance well on towards a million pupils. Since religious toleration has come again to recognise that the Roman Catholics even have some rights, there are many parochial schools under charge of priests or nuns. There are, besides, many private, religious, and association schools giving education to something like a quarter of a million pupils. Higher, technical, and special education is admirably cared for.

The Republic of Mexico is not yet one hundred years old. Indeed, we may almost say that the age of that Republic should be computed from the centennial year of the United States of America, for the chaos that was supreme before then absolutely prohibited growth. If, then, modern Mexico began in 1876, and modern Japan in 1872, is there any reason for a patriotic Mexican blushing when the development of his country is compared with that of Japan?

CHAPTER XVIII

A GLANCE AT MEXICO'S NEIGHBOURS: THE CENTRAL AMERICAN REPUBLICS

ANYONE who visits Mexico "on pleasure bent" will surely feel disposed to avail himself of the opportunity to see something of that republic's southern neighbours.

From 1808 to 1814, Spain was so busily engaged at home, in her struggle to maintain her independence against France, that it was difficult to give needed attention to the defence of her American colonies. The Spanish King was held in captivity by Napoleon Bonaparte, and prospects were gloomy. Little attention was given, in the matters of reinforcements and money, to the royalists who were striving to maintain their King's authority in America.

In 1814, however, England having rendered assistance, the French were driven from Spain and Napoleon was overcome. Then, Ferdinand VII. was restored to his throne and immediately he directed his attention to his American dominions. It was fortunate for Mexico and the Central American colonies of New Granada, that this attention was given to South America, for had the eighteen expeditions, embracing in the aggregate some 45,000 men, and representing an outlay of about \$75,000,000, been sent against New Spain and New Granada, there might be a different story to tell.

We usually think of Central America as embracing the following six political units, — the independent Republics, Guatemala, Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua,

Costa Rica, and Panama. But we here also include the British Crown Colony of British Honduras.

Central America is not a very large section of the earth's surface, even when we consider it as a whole; for the total area is only some 208,500 square miles, not five times the size of the State of Pennsylvania, and much smaller than Texas. On the Pacific side, the coast line is fairly regular in sweep, with many indentations, some of them being quite deep; but a great curve is made towards the north in Panama Bay. On the Caribbean Sea, the fundamental coast line is smooth, although there are many lagoons and salt-water lakes breaking into the shore. But this side of Central America shows some remarkable serpentine curves. The greatest width, in a line east and west, is along the 15th parallel of north latitude, from Cape Gracias à Dios, in Honduras, to the boundary between Guatemala and the Mexican State of Chiapas, a little west of the 92° of west longitude, Greenwich; this is a distance of about 1000 miles. But at right angles to the axis of the country, the longest line is from Cape Gracias à Dios to Coseguina Point in the Department of Chinandega, Nicaragua, about 340 miles.

Until 1903, Central America was considered, geographically, to stop at the southern boundary of Costa Rica. Since the Republic of Panama was cut off from the northern part of Colombia, this, too, has been deemed to be a part of Central America. This more modern definition "does not command the universal assent of geographers, because it fails to include the whole region up to the natural frontier on the northwest, i.e., the Isthmus of Tehuantepec in Mexico."

The Cordilleras extend from end to end of Central America, but their continuity is broken by certain

depressions, the most important one being the basin of Lake Nicaragua. The mountains do not conform strictly in characteristics either to the bold Sierras Madres of Mexico or the sharp Andes of South America; yet some peaks rise to a height of over 13,000 feet. It is, however, a little surprising to find so many tracts on a geological and orographical map of this region marked "Geological information incomplete," as we do; this is explained by the absence of incentive for scientific investigation. The strict geologist assumes that Central America is not a continuation of either great continent, "but constitutes a third element which is wedged, as it were, between the other two."

The climate of Central America is extremely variable, as could not be otherwise when we consider the physical conformation and the proximity of two oceans to every part thereof. Another effective cause of this variation is the sudden change of altitude found in many places. Here, as in Mexico, the inhabitants speak of three zones: *tierras calientes*, tropical, from the seashore up to about 1500 feet; *tierras templadas*, temperate, 1500 to 5000 feet; and *tierras frias*, cold, above 5000 feet; with different climatic conditions in each. But the isotherms are exceedingly erratic, and it is noticeable that, physical and other conditions being seemingly equal, the heat is greater along the Pacific than on the Atlantic versant.

Being entirely within the tropics, and not very remote from the equator, there is no sharp distinction of seasons, as we think of them in the temperate zone, the northern especially. The division of the year is considered to be a matter of rainfall; there being a dry season and a rainy season, without marked difference of temperature, and both varying, in the same latitude,

according to altitude and situation. There are frequent, most violent thunderstorms and many "cloudbursts," the latter being, of course, terribly destructive. When a height of 7000 feet and upwards has been reached, it is not uncommon to have frost at night; but snow is rarely seen, even on the loftiest mountains.

The *fauna* and *flora* are both wonderful; the latter especially. The orchids and huge flowering thistles of parts of Central America have given great satisfaction to botanists and their possibilities have not yet been exhausted, because, as with geology, there are tracts which must be marked "Botanical information incomplete." In Guatemala, there is a remarkable plant to which the Spaniards gave the name of *flor de fiebre*, "fever flower," because it seemed to give forth such a violent heat just at the moment of fertilisation. The plants that furnish fruits or berries of service, or materials for use in industries, are numerous.

It is impossible to get precise and late information as to the population of Central America; but the most recent available statistics indicate that the number of inhabitants is close to five millions. This estimate, however, includes a very large number of Indians who are entirely uncivilised. It is a remarkable fact that, although these people are ethnically allied to the Indians of Mexico, they have never evinced anything approximating the capacity of their northern kinsmen to assimilate modern culture. This is one of the most extraordinary cases of human relapse, for it is certain that some of the tribes who are now characterised by almost complete savagery, had attained a fairly high level of culture before the Spanish Conquest. These adverse criticisms do not apply to *all* the Central American Indians.



A CANOE LANDING, LAKE PATZCUARO

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Throughout the whole of the six Republics, such a preponderance of mixed Spanish and Indian blood exists, that save in remote districts few people of the pure strain on either side are now to be found. The Canal Zone and the government centres of British Honduras are, of course, not included in this statement. Costa Rica is the marked exception to this apparent rule; because in this Republic the whites are numerous. According to an estimate made on December 31, 1909, the population of Costa Rica was 368,780, and there were only about 3500 aborigines; of the rest something like twenty per cent. were considered "white."

On his fourth voyage, in 1502, Columbus discovered this part of the American hemisphere, and the portion now known as Costa Rica was conquered by the Spaniards in 1513. In the third decade of the sixteenth century, Hernando Cortés completed the conquest of Central America. Panama formed a part of the distinct Spanish colony of "New Granada." Excluding British Honduras, Central America continued to be a separate Spanish Captain-Generalcy until 1821. It was organised into five departments or provinces corresponding to the modern Republics.

From 1821 until March 21, 1847, Guatemala was a unit of the Confederation of Central America. It then established itself as an independent Republic, and is now governed under the Constitution which was adopted in 1879, but modified in 1885, 1887, 1889, 1903. Speaking somewhat loosely, this Constitution is modelled after that of the United States of America. The President is chosen by popular election, the suffrage being universal, and he is theoretically ineligible for the term immediately following that for which he was elected. It is needless to say here that this prohibition has been

as much honoured in the breach as in the observance. Representatives to the National Assembly (Congress) are elected for four years; one for every 20,000 inhabitants. Inasmuch as the total population was estimated to be only 1,992,000 at the end of 1910, this legislative body consists of only 100 members. Yet comparison with other States similarly governed, indicates that it is too large. It certainly is usually most unmanageable. The President is assisted in his administration by a Council of State; some of its thirteen members being elected by the National Assembly, while others are appointed by the President himself.

Education is free and compulsory; yet, by the very nature of the case, the school attendance is not great, being some 50,000 pupils in 1300 schools. Adherents of all religious creeds have entire freedom in the matter of worship; although Roman Catholicism so preponderates that the Protestant faiths are sparsely represented.

Railway facilities are meagre. The two oceans are linked together, from San Tomas on the Bay of Honduras, Atlantic, to San Jose on the Pacific; and connection is, or will be very soon, had with the Mexican system at the frontier. Fairly good harbours exist on both coasts, and the volume of traffic indicates that Guatemala is rich in natural resources; but the utter instability of the Government, the continual political disturbances, and the frequent economic crises, have greatly retarded development.

The climate, as is to be expected, is distinctly bad in the lowlands of the coast, yet temperate and salubrious in the highlands, where most of the inhabitants live. There are several mountains, some of them active volcanoes, which may attract the climber; several rise to heights closely approximating 14,000 feet above sea-

level. Their ascent will combine labour and danger enough to satisfy the most exacting.

One of the most interesting topics which Guatemala offers the student is that of languages. In 1885, Otto Stoll* estimated the number of spoken languages to be eighteen, although east of the meridian of Lake Amatitlan the native speech has almost entirely disappeared and been replaced by Spanish. The etymology of the Republic's name is rather interesting: it is "probably of Aztec origin, and is said by some authorities to mean, in its native form Quauhtematlan, 'Land of the Eagle,' or 'Land of the Forest'; others, writing it U-ha-tezma-la, connect it with the volcano of Agua (i.e. 'water'), and interpret it as 'mountain vomiting water.'" The conical *Volcan de Agua*, twenty-five miles southwest of the present city of Guatemala, is 12,197 feet high. It discharges boiling water, and in 1541 this destroyed the old city of Guatemala.

The Government of Salvador is so similar to that of Guatemala, as to make it hardly necessary to repeat here. While nominally provision is made for free and compulsory education, adequate schools and teachers are not supplied because of financial and economic difficulties. The population of this small republic, only 7225 square miles in area, is large as compared with that of the other states of Central America, being 154 to the square mile. Agriculture is the only real industry, but even this is not prosecuted very seriously. Mining and cotton growing are slowly developing; yet progress cannot be seriously considered until something like stability in government and land tenure is assured.

Railway development is small; but the plans for the great Pan-American Trunk line will, when carried out,

* "Die Maya-Sprachen der Pokom-Gruppe."

bring improvement in this respect. Briefly, save for some novel phases of life, a little scenery, and the perennial satisfaction of expanding one's horizon, this Republic offers little to attract the ordinary tourist.

Honduras is, probably, the most poorly developed and least progressive of the Central American republics. What has been said of Guatemala and Salvador as to government, applies here in general terms, and the differences are immaterial. Cape Honduras has the honour of being the place where Christopher Columbus first landed in 1502, on the continent of America, and here he took possession in the names of Ferdinand and Isabella, King and Queen of Spain. It is not this scene, however, which is familiar to all of us as "The Landing of Columbus."

There are many interesting relics of an old civilisation which existed long before the advent of Europeans. To these archæologists have given attention and been satisfactorily rewarded. It is to be regretted that the Spaniards were so iconoclastic; because had these left uninjured what they found, the efforts of later comers would have been productive of so much greater results in ethnology.

Nicaragua has compelled the Government of the United States to give to this Republic more attention than would be required had quiet been a characteristic feature of the people and their rulers. Even while this is being written, we read of the necessity for sending American ships to Bluefields, on the Caribbean coast, and to the Pacific ports of the Republic, in order that American lives and property may be protected from the hands of those who are engaged in another political turmoil. This has been the record of Nicaragua's history, almost continuously since 1821; one revolution

succeeding another, and varied occasionally by a war with a neighbour.

But aside from this, in the few months of quiet which sometimes intervene, there is probably more in this State to attract the stranger than all the others of Central America, except Panama. Nicaragua, when abnormal conditions of peace exist, is now administered under a very modern Constitution; one that was adopted on March 30, 1905. It provides for universal suffrage; for a Congress of but one branch, whose members serve six years; and for a President who is elected, by popular ballot, for six years and is, nominally, ineligible for immediate re-election.

The remarkably varied character of the country, gives great diversity of climate and conditions of life. The coast regions and the great lacustrine depressions of the interior are dangerous to the unacclimatised stranger; but the high uplands are healthy. Although, as yet, sparsely populated, Nicaragua is improving rapidly in this respect.

Nominally, Costa Rica's government is that which was provided for by the Constitution adopted in 1870: this, however, did not become operative until 1882. The single House of the National Legislature is composed of members chosen by electoral colleges, elected by a limited suffrage of self-supporting citizens, in the various departments. There is one member of this House of Representatives for every 8000 inhabitants. The President is similarly elected for a term of four years.

The Republic has immense agricultural possibilities: "almost anything can be grown in Costa Rica." The principal products at present are, however, coffee and bananas. Railways are very few. One line connects Limon, on the Caribbean Sea, with Puntarenas, on the

Pacific. As compared with her sister republics, Costa Rica enjoys a fairly good reputation for quiet and for few revolutions. But it has been quite beyond the capacity of local financiers, even when assisted by competent and interested Europeans, to keep the finances in a satisfactory condition. Repeatedly the Republic has "gone into bankruptcy," refused to pay interest on borrowed money, and repudiated bonds. It is now in pretty much this condition, and foreign creditors are working assiduously to save themselves.

It is scarcely necessary to discuss here the Republic of Panama at any length. It was created by slicing off the department of Panama from the South American Republic of Colombia. This was done, as all the world knows, because the United States insisted upon it. The "Canal Zone," a strip five miles wide on each side of the Canal route, was granted, leased, in perpetuity to the United States on November 18, 1903. Other concessions have been made, and doubtless whatever else the United States wishes will be granted.

Nominally the cities of Panama and Colon, at the western and eastern ends of the Canal respectively, remain under the authority of the Republic; but complete jurisdiction is granted the United States in both cities and their harbours in all that relates to sanitation and quarantine.

The administration of the Republic of Panama is precisely what might be expected in the circumstances. The government is a highly centralised republic. All male citizens over twenty-one years of age have the right to vote, with the usual mental and criminal exceptions. The President is elected by direct, popular vote for four years and may not succeed himself. The National Assembly, a single chamber, is composed of

deputies — one for each 10,000 inhabitants (or fraction over 5000) — elected for four years. This Assembly elects three *designados*, the first of whom succeeds the President in the event of his death or removal for cause. There is no Vice-President.

Panama is not a poverty-stricken republic. There is considerable cattle-raising. Several companies, with foreign capital, have been established in the Bayano Valley. They are interested in bananas, cocoanuts, vegetable ivory, rubber, and cacao. Lumber and cabinet woods are exported. Gold is mined in paying quantity. Fruit of every tropical variety is plentiful.

We dismiss British Honduras with the remark that no one, save those who have financial interests in lumber, is likely to visit this region. Cabinet woods of many kinds, dye-woods, and building lumber make up the sum total of the colony's industries. The natives are expert woodsmen, but good for absolutely nothing else; and it is declared that there are but ninety square miles under cultivation in the whole 7562 square miles of the country. The political history is very interesting.

The subject of the Nicaragua railway and canal has purposely been passed by, because there is so much literature at the disposal of those who seek information.

CHAPTER XIX

SOME MEXICAN RESORTS, SPAS, PARADISES

IT would be impossible to condense into one short chapter a full account of *all* Mexico's attractive spots, even were one person possessed of the knowledge needed to qualify for doing so. The volcanic nature of the country makes it only natural to expect to find hot springs in many places, and there is hardly a State which does not possess at least one, the waters having more or less mineral and therapeutic qualities.

The new attractiveness of Vera Cruz as a winter resort has already been commented upon, and the claims of Orizaba at all seasons have been mentioned. The latter city is a haven for the Mexican residents from all directions: the coast people flee to it in summer to escape from the heat, insect pests, and malaria of the *tierras calientes*; and in winter the balmy climate lures those from the higher altitudes of the bleak plateau. At all times of the year there are likely to be found in Orizaba visitors from all quarters of the globe, and when the modernisation of the town has progressed so far as to provide hotel accommodations of the kind the travelling sybarite demands, the crowd is sure to increase in size. Much more might be said of these two places, but we pass on to a few others that have not already engaged our attention.

The capital itself is not devoid of attractiveness of the kind which entitles it to a place in this chapter. If one may accept at their full face value the words of praise bestowed upon the City of Mexico by artists, it



A TYPICAL BALCONY

THE NEW
AUSTRALIAN

is a place for an artist's lengthy sojourn, because there are still so many delightful nooks and corners which demand that they shall be reproduced on canvas. Then the life, both animate and still, appeals strongly to the wielder of the brush and the mixer of colours.

The suburbs of the city, Chapultepec, Cherubusco, where is the "Country Club," and many other places within easy reach, have every quality that pleases the tourist. The "Country Club" was started by some Americans, and it is yet looked upon as rather an American institution; but it has grown rapidly and become widely popular with all, natives and foreigners alike, provided only that they speak English. The views from the drive at the back of the Club House are thought by some observers almost to rival those from Chapultepec Hill.

Mexico City has almost unlimited club facilities for residents, and privileges, with some exceptions, are liberally given to strangers. We pass by the Jockey Club, the most exclusive of all and to which very few foreigners are admitted, because it does not satisfy our ideal of a club. It was founded originally for gambling, and it "went the pace" so briskly that President Diaz pretty nearly suppressed it. It now owns a race-course and spring and autumn meets are held under its auspices; but it is said to be not attractive in the true club way. Americans have their own "down town" club, and Britons have their "British Club." Germans, as is so generally the case the world over, have the finest men's club in the country, and they occasionally offer attractive musical or histrionic entertainment for others than "mere men." Spaniards, that is, those who pride themselves upon being pure Castilians, have several clubs of their own; one of these almost equals the Jockey in

membership and exclusiveness. Frenchmen have their own; Chinese theirs, Japanese theirs, and there are, in fact, clubs galore.

No visitor to Mexico City — if his arrival is not already too late — will fail to make his way in some fashion, preferably by saddle, on a horse or a mule as the gods elect, to the floating gardens of *Xochimilco*. There is just a little of poetic license in the term “floating garden,” and yet when the flowers are in bloom, especially the big poppies, there is much that is picturesque about the place. The reclamation plan which has already been mentioned may cause the final disappearance of these floating gardens; and even now there is little about them to correspond with the description of the fairy islands of flowers, overshadowed occasionally by trees of considerable size, rising and falling with the gentle undulation of the billows, the *chinampas* that Prescott described.

Should the stranger's arrival in the capital be at the time when a “norther” is blowing, which will cause the total disappearance of the bright blue sky and bring a chill that finds its way to the very marrow (for there will be no fire to sit by and warm himself), he will be told to go to Cuernavaca, where there are orange groves and flowers, where it is always warm and yet never too hot, and where there is the finest climate in the world.

That sounds like an exaggeration, but it has a very substantial foundation of truth, and not one of those who have visited Cuernavaca, and told us about the place, has contradicted this praise. The journey of seventy-four miles is itself something attractive; the scenery is pleasing, and in places grand, and the historical associations are of the kind to take a firm grip upon the traveller.

In some parts of its course, the Mexican Central Railway, by which one travels, follows the old trail along which the Spaniards passed from Acapulco to Vera Cruz, by way of Mexico City, or vice versa. The trains of pack-mules that one sees to-day making their way up or down or into the mountains are very different from the huge, lumbering ox-carts of early Spanish days, yet they are a reminder of what used to be.

The Indians named the town towards which, in imagination, we are now journeying, Cuauhnahuac, "Near the trees." The Spaniards shortened this a little to Cuernavaca, "Cow's horn." In pleasing sound there was little loss, in ease of pronunciation there was a decided gain, and we shall do well not to pay attention to the meanings. Both names were appropriate; the first because of the many trees in and near the town; the second because the rocky *barranca* running through the place is sufficiently conspicuous to suggest the Spanish appellation. The Ajusca range cuts off the "northers" from Cuernavaca and allows it to bask in the warmth of the southern breezes, to whose moisture so much of the luxuriant vegetation is due.

The daily market will certainly lure the visitor to see the piles of fruit or the bright pottery; and the great masses of flowers everywhere will charm all strangers. A week may be pleasantly and profitably passed at Cuernavaca, for there is not only that which brings the revivifying *dolce far niente* that a lazy, tired, rundown visitor needs, but for the energetic there is much of historic interest.

Cortés once owned, and often visited, the *hacienda* of Allamulco, near by, and it is still in the possession of his descendants, although these are now Italian noblemen. Maximilian and Empress Carlotta often came to

their country place, Olindo, close to Cuernavaca. Probably the tourist will choose to pay the fee of twenty-five *centavos*, that is, the equivalent of 12½ cents American, which is demanded for the privilege of entering the estate that formerly belonged to José de la Borda, a French Canadian. He tramped into Mexico, "without a penny," but became at one time the country's greatest silver king. He took fifty million dollars and more from his mines and "blew it in" with the prodigality of his kind. The estate and what is left of the mansion are about fifty miles from Cuernavaca, and the trip there and back can be made comfortably in a day. Cuernavaca is becoming Americanised rapidly, and during the "season," from February until April, it is so crowded that much of its quaint charm has been rubbed off.

If the demands of the capital for electricity, to be used in every way the current is employed, including street railways, lighting, bell-ringing, etc., has brought about the obliteration of the beautiful waterfall which plunged down a thousand feet in the deep gorge of Necaxa, even that spirit of utilitarianism has not been potent enough to rob the valley of all its charms. Perhaps the place ought not to be included here, because it is not exactly a resort for the public generally. Yet the duly accredited visitor has so little difficulty in getting an "open sesame," through his embassy or legation, that it is mentioned. The rather rough trip which the visit entails is more than compensated by the scenery and the experience.

It is not surprising that there are many thermal springs in Mexico, when we bear in mind the geological formation. If there are not very many active volcanoes, there is such manifest evidence of volcanic influence

that it would be strange if there were not a goodly number of hot springs giving a little vent to the influence of hidden fires.

We select the State of Aguas Calientes for consideration, simply because of convenience and the embarrassment which superabundance of material creates. The name means "Hot Waters," and it is apposite. The little town of Aguas Calientes, the State capital, is 8000 feet above the sea, in the great central plateau, and has a delightful climate. It is about 150 miles north of the capital, on the main line of the Mexican Central Railway. The traveller who demands a measure of luxury will find his wishes catered to in the equipment of some of the trains, and he can make the journey quite comfortably. There are several good hotels in the place, and as they are likely to be well filled at all seasons, because visitors flock to Aguas Calientes from all parts of Mexico, it is well to make reservations beforehand.

While natural springs of cold, warm, or hot water are found in all parts of the State, the principal hot ones are those of its capital. All the famous springs have names, the specially important ones being known as *San Nicolás de la Cantera*, *Ojo Caliente*, *Ojo Calientillo*, and *Colomo*. It is rather interesting to note the meaning of these names. That of the first suggests the good gift of restored health which its water is to bestow, and the association with the munificent St. Nicholas is not inept. As the Spaniards call a spring an "Eye of Water," the "hot," *caliente*, or the "warm," *calientillo*, connected with *ojo*, denotes the temperature of the water which flows from two of those springs. The waters range from 86° to 105° F. in temperature, and they are considered to be very efficacious in cases of rheumatism and kindred ailments.

The proprietors of the bath-houses have a curious custom of giving the name of one of Christ's twelve apostles to their establishments. Over the door will be placed an image of the saint chosen as the patron, and by his side a tablet on which are figures to show the temperature of the water. The overflow of hot water runs through the streets in broad ditches, and here the *lavenderas*, laundresses, gather to wash their clothes.

There are several phases of life at Aguas Calientes which recall similar conditions in the towns and villages of Japan where there are also hot or medicinal springs. In both countries, Mexico and Japan, bathing in public is now prohibited, as is promiscuous bathing of the sexes in public bath-houses. But in primitive conditions not long ago in Japan, and probably not so very remote in Mexico, all things were pure to the pure, and the simple people saw no impropriety in making free use of the good things the generous gods were kind enough to give them. Civilisation is responsible for some queer changes!

If the visitor wishes to see Aguas Calientes in gala time, he should arrange his visit so as to include the festival of Saint John the Baptist, June 24th. Then the place is crowded with people from all parts of the Republic, mostly Indians, peasants, and others of the lower classes: this fact should be borne in mind when going out into the thronged streets.

Every man, woman, and child takes a bath on that day, and perhaps it is the first one since the last anniversary of Saint John! For most of these people permission is given to make use of the free bathing-places which the municipality provides. They make application by families and groups and are told off in squads under the charge of the police or soldiers detailed for the

purpose of seeing that the rules of decency and order are respected. It is a noisy time, but is said to be not riotous.

The town of Aguas Calientes is also *en fête* at one other time of the year. It begins on April 25th, the festival of Saint Mark, and lasts for ten days. This, however is an occasion of quite a different character from that of Saint John the Baptist's day. It is a time of merriment and gambling rather than of personal lustration. The Mexican Government has, certainly since the effort was first seriously made by President Diaz, set its face against general gambling. But for these ten days in April and May each year, at Aguas Calientes, the prohibition is withdrawn, and the town, in this respect, is "wide open." Perhaps the wise rulers know their people well and believe that the safety-valve must be allowed to "blow off" occasionally, or the risk of disastrous explosion will be altogether too great. At any rate games of chance and gambling devices of all kinds are permitted, and a good many very respectable people, and clerks of all grades, and servants, and hosts of other folks, take a holiday to be passed at Mexico's temporary Monte Carlo. The gambling saloons do a continuous trade, morning, noon, and night; and they, certainly, must prosper, for when the time for jollification and gambling is ended, the whole mass of visitors make their way home as best they can, for the ready money is sure to be all gone; and unless forethought has provided for a return railway ticket, it is a case of beg, borrow, steal, or tramp.

Two, at least, of Mexico's watering-places have pre-empted the title of "The Mexican Carlsbad" to set forth the measure of their charms, Tehuacan, in the State of Puebla, and Cuantla, on the southern slope of

Popocatapetl, in the State of Morelos. To the first, the Mexican who has "a touch of liver" or kindred ailments betakes himself; and this spa, with two or three mineral springs, is said to be efficacious in diseases of the kidneys, dissolving calculus, etc.

But there is a fly in the ointment, and while it may be all quite true that Tehuacan's mineral waters possess remarkable curative powers, the visitor will have to put up with some hardships that might easily be smoothed away. To quote one who speaks from actual experience: "With a really good, up-to-date hotel, Tehuacan, with its mineral springs, its fine climate, and its beautiful scenery, would become a resort well worth visiting, and one where many classes of visitors could regain health and strength. Under present conditions, however, there are too many hardships to be endured to make it attractive to people accustomed to comfortable living."

The town itself is more than ordinarily attractive. It has pretty plazas and wide streets with rows of trees along their centre. Some of the residences are true old-fashioned Spanish mansions, with curiously curled iron brackets in the front wall, from which lamps were suspended. What was a quiet, sleepy old place, has been transformed into a health resort since the railway made it accessible.

If Cuantla is something of a disappointment as a sanitarium, it is a very attractive winter resort. It stands about 5000 feet above the sea; has a splendid climate, the mean average temperature being 70° F., and in some respects is said to rival Cuernavaca. It is a quaint, old-fashioned place, and boasts of having the oldest railway station in the world; the building used for that purpose was erected in 1657, and it was until quite recently the Church of San Diego.

The Valley of Toluca, balmy, mild, delicious, is declared to be one of Mexico's Paradises, which the artist and the lover of Nature in her most sublime moments, find irresistible. Tamasopo is another, "a gem among the many beauty spots of Mexico." It is on the scenic line of the Central Railway, between Tampico and San Luis Potosi. "One passes a succession of majestic cañons, the grandeur of which it would be difficult to depict, let alone exaggerate."

Lake Chapala and its environs is the last of Mexico's Paradises that we shall mention, simply because of the limitations of space. How many of our readers knew that there is such a lake? Yet it is ten times as large as all the lakes of Northern Italy, and there are islands larger than the entire surface of Loch Lomond. It is almost a hundred miles long and it is thirty-three miles wide. It covers fourteen hundred square miles. Lake Superior is 370 miles long and its area is 32,000 square miles. Patzcuaro and Cuitzeo are also lakes of considerable size near Chapala, and all of them are 6,000 feet or more above sea-level. They only await development and advertising to become popular resorts.

CHAPTER XX

MEXICO'S SEAPORTS, HISTORICALLY CONSIDERED

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS died without knowing what lay beyond the new continent he had found; although he realised that the New World was not the Asia he had set out to discover. Vasco Nuñez de Balboa, on the 29th of September, 1513, was the first European to look westward over the ocean of whose existence Columbus was certain, but which he had so long vainly tried to reach.

Ferdinand Magellan (his true name, for he was a Portuguese, was Fernão de Magalhães), after perils and mishaps that would have dismayed all but such intrepid souls as his, sailed through the straits between the mainland of South America and the group of Tierra del Fuego, into the sea to which he gave the name of *Mar Pacifico*. That was on the 27th of November, 1520. Pursuing his exploration out into the Pacific and confident that he was now to fulfil his promise to the King of Spain to find a way of reaching the Moluccas by sailing westward from Europe, Magellan, on the 12th of March, 1521, discovered some islands to which he gave the name of St. Lazarus. This was the same year in which Cortés effected the Conquest of Mexico.

Thus was brought about the overlapping of Spanish and Portuguese claims, under the famous Papal Bull, to which allusion has been already made, and the Convention of Tordesilhas; but with this subject we have no further interest at present. Magellan lost his life



THE BURNING OF JUDAS ISCARIOT'S EFFIGY, MEXICO CITY

TO THE
ASTORIA

on the island of Mactan, off the coast of Cebu; yet his comrades completed their voyage of circumnavigation and on their arrival in Spain reported the new possessions to their sovereign who realised that Magellan's prophecy was correct. But before occasion arose to make sure of this road to the Moluccas, another had been gained by way of Mexico.

It was speedily determined to establish communication with the St. Lazarus Islands through New Spain, and in 1542 or 1543 Rui Lopez de Villalobos sailed from Navidad (the present State of Jalisco) with five galleons and 370 men to take formal possession of the islands. He quarrelled with the Portuguese already in that part of the world, as was inevitable, and he accomplished nothing, although he did suggest the present name of the archipelago, Philippines, by giving the name of Filipino to the island of Samar.

In 1565, Miguel Lopez de Legazpe founded the Spanish settlement of San Miguel at the town of Cebu, which afterwards became La Villa de Santissimo Nombre de Jesus, because of an image of our Saviour that was found there, miraculously, Legazpe and his men declared, but which had doubtless been accidentally left by some of Magellan's party.

Later, Legazpe founded a new city and established the capital of the colony at Manila, and in a letter which he wrote in 1567, the name *Islas Filipinas* appeared for the first time. It requires a stretch of the imagination to picture the Spaniards, about the middle of the sixteenth century, fitting out at Navidad an expedition to cross the Pacific Ocean. This harbour was soon abandoned for the better one, Acapulco, a little farther south. This latter port, in the State of Guerrero, was at that time, as it is to-day, the best natural harbour

on the Pacific coast and, indeed, in the whole Republic. It is completely landlocked, yet so easy of entrance that a pilot is scarcely necessary, and the rocky shores are so bold, with deep water close to them, that the largest steamers can lie close in.

The writer recalls his own experience at this place in May, 1866. It was during the struggle between the Republican forces and the French and Imperialists under Maximilian. The former were in possession of the town; but the latter occupied the heights which towered close about the place. The steamer had entered just as the dusk of evening gave way to the intense darkness of a moonless night. Yet not a light was to be seen in any part of the town, because the besiegers were ready to shoot at any light in the hope of hitting somebody. At intervals, along the top of the surrounding mountains, the watch-fires of the Imperialists could be seen.

Cargo was discharged into lighters at the side of the steamer opposite the town, and some was received at the same place. The work was done by what little illumination was given by the ship's inside lights, oil-lamps and lanterns. The French troops would not have dared to fire upon a neutral ship; but the stevedores had no idea of what neutrality meant, and they would run no risk.

Communication with the shore was supposed to be forbidden; that is, passengers, save the very few who were booked for Acapulco, were not permitted openly to land. Yet after the evening dinner the freight clerk asked the writer if he would care to take the chance of being shot at by going ashore for an hour or so to get a cup of Mexican chocolate. The spice of danger was tempting and the invitation was accepted. By a rope ladder hung from the taffrail, four of us clambered down

into a shore boat and were pulled ashore noiselessly with muffled oars.

Landing at the end of a dilapidated stone quay, each one was taken between two men and led over the rough rocks to a street. After a little we reached the doorway of a house and entered the *patio*, courtyard, which was thickly and closely covered with straw mats and tarpaulins. In one of the rooms opening onto the patio, the small windows of which were closely screened, we were served with chocolate and some sort of light cake. After that came the cigarettes, and then we were guided back to the boat and so returned to the ship, which steamed out within an hour after we were on board. No doubt the way in which it was obtained gave a special relish to it, yet the taste of that thick, creamy chocolate, in which a spoon would almost stand alone, lingers to this day.

During the centuries of Spanish sovereignty in Mexico, each year a galleon (until the modern ship was evolved) sailed from Acapulco for Manila, and another returned laden with the treasures and luxuries of the Far East. The arrival of the vessel from the Philippines was the signal for calling together merchants from all parts of Mexico, who came to purchase whatever of the cargo the officials were willing or permitted to sell. The greater part, it is needless to say, was taken in ox-carts, accompanied by a heavy military escort, to Mexico City and thence sent on to Vera Cruz, to be re-shipped in another galleon and forwarded to Seville or Cadiz.

When Mexico declared its independence and the separation between the colony and the mother-country was completed, the vessels from the Philippine Islands no longer crossed the Pacific, but made their way to

Europe around the Cape of Good Hope. This entailed disaster to Acapulco, and the place was almost depopulated; but when the rush to the gold fields of California began, it was made a port of call for steamers between the Isthmus of Darien, or Panama, or San Juan del Sur (Nicaragua), and San Francisco. This somewhat revived the town, and a measure of prosperity has continued ever since. Acapulco is even now the most important harbour on the west coast, and when it is connected by rail with the entire system of the country will probably develop yet more. The accomplishing of this connection involves engineering difficulties even exceeding those encountered in completing the line from Vera Cruz to Mexico City; for the railway has to pierce the very heart of the Sierra Madre Occidental where there is no such thing as a pass.

The most formidable rival that Acapulco harbour has is that of Manzanillo, State of Colima. In natural advantages this port cannot be compared with Acapulco. It is not well sheltered from north and northwest winds and it is shallow. It is, however, easy of access by railway from the interior, and the Mexican Central several years ago built a line of one hundred and fifty miles or so to this place. The Government has expended \$20,000,000 (gold) in constructing the artificial port, jetties, etc. This undertaking was greatly hampered by sanitary conditions, and an immense amount of preliminary work was done in drainage of stagnant waters and general sanitation before the actual task of harbour improvement could be touched. The hinterland of Manzanillo is so rich in minerals — gold, silver, copper, lead — has such agricultural and grazing possibilities, and will soon be furnishing so much coffee as cargo for San Francisco, that the future prosperity is reasonably

assured. Manzanillo is, too, the seaport for Colima, the State capital, and the Lake Chapala region, and this is a factor in passenger traffic which is of importance.

The few remaining harbours on the west coast which merit even passing attention have no historic interest, being all included in the modern development of Mexico, and they are of purely utilitarian value. Salina Cruz, the western terminus of the Tehuantepec Railway, was naturally an open roadstead terrifically buffeted by the restless, heavy surf of the Pacific, without any inherent features of a good port. Yet engineering science, supplied with ample financial means, has constructed a double harbour by building immense breakwaters. The inner of these harbours actually covers the site of the former town of Salina Cruz, and skeleton wharves of steel permit steamers to moor alongside. The depth of water is not yet sufficient to allow of deep-draught ocean steamers entering this inner harbour; but the plans for dredging, when carried out, may remedy this defect. The new town of Salina Cruz is not an attractive place of residence. The climate is trying and all the conditions of life more or less irritating.

Puerto Angeles is simply a small harbour at which coasting steamers call. If this place, or the neighbouring Escondido Bay, ever attains any importance it will be as the seaport of the large, prosperous, and wide-awake city of Oaxaca, the capital of the State in which both are located.

San Blas, in Sinaloa, and Guaymas, in Sonora, both have good harbours and they will doubtless come to be important ports of entry as general development progresses. They will be benefited by the north and south semi-coastal railway which the Southern Pacific Company is building down into Mexico. Guaymas has

been a port of considerable importance from the earliest days of steamship traffic along the western coast of the Americas. It is the natural port of entry for the flourishing city of Hermosillo, the capital of the State of Sonora, and its hinterland is capable of immense development in every way, including mining, agriculture, and stock-raising.

Mazatlan is a name familiar to all on the Pacific coast of the United States who have had anything to do with Mexico during the past half century, for it has been the main *entrepôt* of the famous mining States, Sinaloa, Durango, and Zacatecas. The harbour is a good one and with existing, as well as with contemplated, railway connections, there is a promise of a great future for this port. For a time the Mexican Government contemplated centering at Mazatlan the energy which was afterwards transferred to Manzanillo, and proposed constructing a great artificial harbour with ample docks and other equipment.

Topolobampo, or — as it is proposed to re-christen the place — Port Stilwell, is the Pacific coast terminus of the Kansas City, Mexico, and Orient Railway. This is a great international line in which American and European capital is invested; it received munificent concessions but no subsidy from the Mexican Government. Topolobampo is said to remind the visitor very much of the far-famed and beautiful Bay of Rio de Janeiro. "Here are to be seen almost the same curiously-formed sugar-loaf mountains, the same land-locked harbour, dotted with verdure-clad islets with their waving palm-plumes, and, of course, the same beautiful atmospheric conditions. Rio is considerably larger, deeper, and wider than Topolobampo, but in general appearance, as I have said, it closely resembles

it."* But with all its scenic attractiveness and natural advantages, Port Stilwell, as an ocean traffic emporium, has some drawbacks because of being so far up the Gulf of California as it is. Mazatlan has nearly a day's steaming the advantage over it; and Manzanillo and Acapulco are both directly accessible from the open sea without going much farther. The railway, of which Port Stilwell is the deep-water terminus, serves an enormously rich country, however, and this fact must have an important bearing on the future of the place.

We next turn to the harbours on the east coast. Until less than a decade ago, Coatzacoalcos was an unknown little Indian fishing-village; to-day, under the new name of Puerto Mexico, and as the eastern terminus of the Tehuantepec Railway, it is not only well known throughout the industrial and shipping world, but it stands forth (with its complement, Salina Cruz) as a symbol of Mexico's determination to advance. An enormous sum of money has been expended in constructing an artificial harbour in which steamers of very deep draught may lie alongside wharves.

Progreso, the seaport of Merida, capital of Yucatan, is of importance as being the shipping port for the great *henequén*† industry, and the reasonable certainty of increase in that business gives substantial promise that the little town will live up to its name. The harbour, however, is not an ideal one. While Campeche, Chetumal, Frontera, Alvarado, Nautla, Champotón, Isla Aguada, Puerto Morélos, Tuxpan, and possibly a few others, may all be considered as Gulf ports, not one of them is of sufficient importance to deserve more than naming; and the same may be said of some places on the west coast which may seem to have been overlooked.

* P. F. Martin, *op. cit.* Cf. W. E. Carson, *op. cit.*

† Fibre of the Mexican agave; sisal hemp.

Of Vera Cruz and Tampico a suggestion has been given. As between the two, the former is more valuable to the Government of Mexico because the imports there are of a more valuable kind, if less in quantity, paying higher duties than do the coals and metals which constitute the bulk of Tampico's imports. Although Vera Cruz has been made a very good artificial harbour, at the expenditure of a great deal of money, it yet has the disadvantages which its situation entails. At Tampico, on the other hand, the work of the stevedores can be carried on practically the whole year round. A "norther" may interfere at Tampico; at Vera Cruz it effectually puts a stop to all work, and ships dare not attempt to enter or leave. Vessels may be detained a day or two by low water at Tampico bar; this, however, rarely happens and it is comparatively nothing by the side of the total suspension which often occurs at Vera Cruz. The expense of handling cargo at Tampico is barely two-thirds of what it is at Vera Cruz.

It will thus be seen that Mexico, for all her long coast line on two oceans, has but one truly natural harbour, Acapulco. Here only can the shipping business be prosecuted without great expense in harbour construction or improvement. But climatic conditions at Acapulco are not so favourable as they are elsewhere.

CHAPTER XXI

CONCLUSION

WHEN the United States of America first departed from her traditions of resting content with the territory between the Canadian and Mexican frontiers and stretching from the Atlantic to the Pacific, by purchasing from Russia the latter's possessions in North America, she began a process of expansion upon which many statesmen and publicists looked with disfavour. This is not the place to comment upon the fact that the purchase was in the nature of an appreciation for favours granted at a critical moment, or that the purchase has developed into a valuable property.

It is true this expansion did not take the United States off the continent of North America; but Alaska is not geographically connected in any way with the United States proper, and the acquisition seemed to be a departure from what the people had come to consider an established precedent. Their energies were, until 1867, supposed to be restricted to the development of the real United States of that date, and expansion meant merely the natural growth of western territories into States, without stretching out beyond the boundary between themselves and the Canadians on the north, and the Mexicans on the south. In this view of conditions, the Louisiana Purchase had not been stultification.

This policy of non-foreign expansion prevailed until almost the end of the nineteenth century, when the Hawaiian Islands were annexed, again in the face of violent opposition. There speedily came, then, yet fur-

ther over-seas expansion in the acquisition of the Philippine Archipelago, Guam, Porto Rico, and Tutuila (Samoa). Within a few years past it has seemed wise to the American Government to secure possession of the Panama Canal Zone, even if this action has not been universally approved by the people. That qualification, however, may be applied to every one of the territorial accessions beyond the narrowly defined United States of America.

The restrictions of tradition having been once overcome in 1898, by going across the sea to expand the dominions, gradually the American people are being trained to look upon expansion as manifest destiny; and probably it would be an easier matter to persuade them now to approve of the annexation of Mexico than it could have been a quarter of a century ago.

So far as diplomacy and world politics bear upon the subject, the writer declines to express an opinion about the wisdom of taking over the Panama Canal Zone. Economically there seemed to be no alternative. Granting cheerfully that the Panama Canal had to be built, for the rush of the present time demands some such additional facility for naval and mercantile marine communication between the West and the East, it is manifest that no other power than the United States could be permitted to undertake the financing and construction of the canal, as well as its control and maintenance after it is once built.

The United States of Colombia was not financially, physically, or technically able to build the Canal. Nor could the United States of America safely agree to finance the undertaking and leave the control in the hands of a Spanish-American Republic. Experience had taught, and the events of each day are confirming,



MANZANILLO HARBOUR

THE
ABORIGINAL

the lesson that the instability of these Republics would make such a risk altogether too hazardous. The Canal had to be an American investment purely and the valuable property had to be safeguarded.

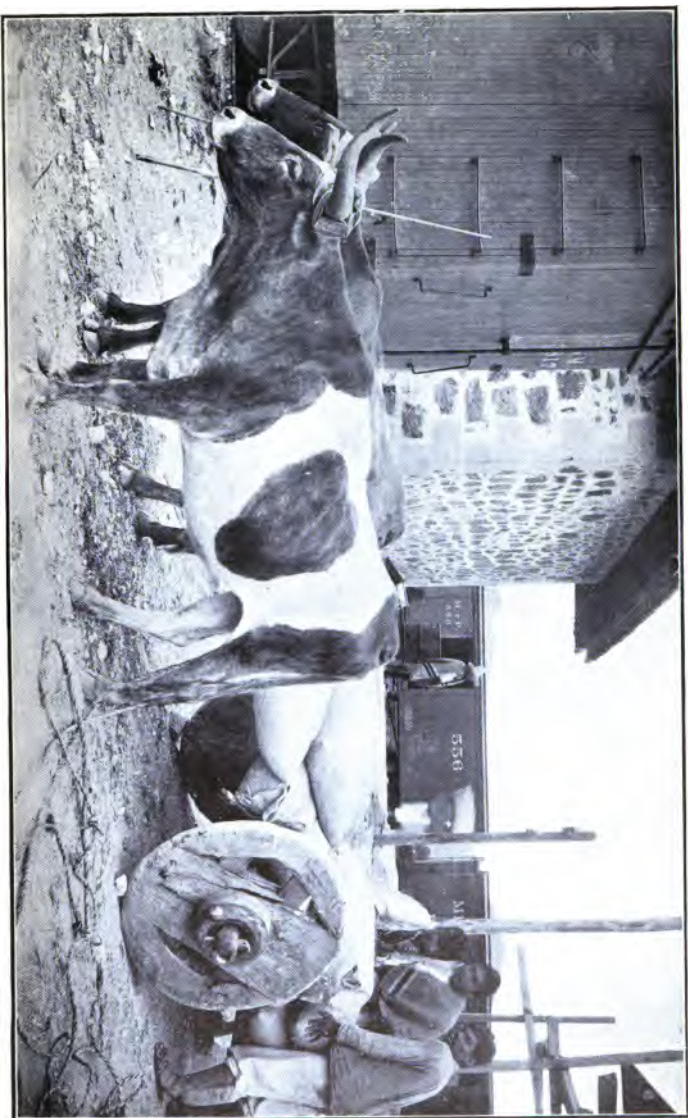
It has come to pass, then, that there is a strip of the United States domain, only ten miles wide and some forty miles long, representing an investment of hundreds of millions of dollars. This valuable strip, whose importance is not measured alone by the standard of money, is separated from the bulk of the country by the United States of Mexico and the Central American Republics. To this detached piece of property the United States has access, in common with all maritime nations, by sea; and this communication is hampered in her case by precisely the same obstacles as those which pertain to any other naval and maritime power; that is to say, the perils and dangers of the deep at all times, and the presence of a powerful enemy to prevent access in the event of war, when the Canal would be of the greatest service in the matter of communication, and most needing the care and protection of the owner who has everything to lose in the event of absolute capture or partial damage.

Of the doubtful stability of the Mexican Government a hint has been given; and this is a subject which must be handled very delicately, for otherwise a needless wound might be inflicted upon properly sensitive people. Of the positive weakness of the Central American Republics it is hardly necessary to speak. American intervention has gone to an extreme which should be resented by any self-respecting government; but it was imperatively necessary to protect the lives and property of Americans in Nicaragua from a mob of "revolutionists." And what may happen in the future no man can tell.

Between Nicaragua and Panama lies the Republic of Costa Rica, reasonably quiet and peaceful in normal conditions, yet always in such an impecunious state as to be exceedingly unsatisfactory as a buffer state. The record of past events teaches us that the citizens of this country have not shown entire lack of capacity for internal disturbances, even though we can truthfully say that these have been of less frequent occurrence in Costa Rica than in any of her sister Republics. Yet the Government has been compelled to maintain an army entirely beyond its means, simply to guard against political and personal possibilities. Should the foreign creditors push their claims, it is by no means impossible that this would be the signal for a revolt that might easily be dangerous to the Republic of Panama and the Canal Zone.

It seems to be highly desirable that the United States shall have access by land to the costly and strategically as well as commercially valuable Panama Canal; yet how this may be secured is a problem which is doubtless giving American Government officials and army and navy officers much anxiety. So far as Mexico is concerned, when peace in that Republic is absolutely restored and the Government again firmly established in permanent rule of the whole country, a treaty of alliance might accomplish all that is needed; provided this treaty could be drawn in terms which admitted of the transportation of troops and munitions of war from the frontier across Mexico, without giving offence to the citizens. But no such treaty with any of the Central American Republics would be worth much more than the paper on which it was written.

Without presuming to prophesy what may be done or how it might be accomplished, we can hardly refrain



UNLOADING GRAIN

ALGERIA

from saying that it seems as if some measure must be taken, either of annexation or protection, to secure permanent right for the United States to get southward by land from the Mexican border all the way to the Panama Canal Zone. There are many people in various parts of the world — and they are not all Americans or Britons — who consider the control of the whole North American continent by the two English-speaking peoples “a consummation devoutly to be wished.”

But if it is hazardous to write of what may be politically in store for The Coming Mexico, there is no cogent reason for refraining from speculation as to the material progress of that country. Consideration for the feelings of the people of the Republic compels us to wish that they may be permitted to work out their own social and political development. The only assistance from outside that should be sought is the needed capital and the desirable supervision by competent technologists over the great industrial enterprises which have already been established and which will be expanded and increased in scope by enterprise in fields that have not yet been exploited.

It will have been noted by careful readers of newspaper accounts of events in Mexico during the time since President Diaz was compelled to relinquish control that there has been no apparent disposition to discontinue the governmental concessions for railways, mining, industries, etc. Nor has there been any evidence of a tendency to curtail the privileges heretofore granted. It is unfortunately true that some of the properties in which foreigners are interested, have been injured; but that was always the act of a mob, and such acts do not militate against the good faith of the Central Government.

There is no good reason to believe that other foreigners who are prepared to give satisfactory proof of ability and integrity will be refused concessions upon application and in just the same favourable terms as heretofore.

The first Spaniards, when they described Mexico and its wealth, scarcely mentioned silver, but dwelt enthusiastically upon the enormous quantity of gold and the little value which the Aztecs seemed to put upon this precious metal. We are told that Montezuma gave Cortés presents of gold, in dust, bullion, utensils, and ornaments, that were valued by the Spaniards at over seven million *pesos de oro*. In terms of the purchasing power of money, that would easily represent thirty million gold dollars to-day.

A great deal of gold has undoubtedly been taken out of Mexican placers and mines, usually in combination with other metals; but no true gold mines have been re-discovered since the arrival of the Spaniards, that could possibly have yielded gold in the quantity which Aztec lavishness indicates.

It is said by some of the Mexicans (that is, by Spaniards and a few Creoles) that the Indians know where true gold-bearing ores exist in enormous quantities; but they continue superstitiously to preserve the secret of the locality of these possible mines. Education and civilisation might overcome this superstition and help the foreign miners to get at these natural stores, without going to the expenditure of large sums in prospecting. There must be somewhere in Mexico richer gold-bearing veins than any that have yet been exploited; and systematic search for these will continue to tempt investors until success rewards their efforts.

One of the fabled gold mines is said to be in the land

of the Tlapacoyan Indians (probably in the present State of Oaxaca), who paid tribute to the Spaniards with nuggets of almost pure gold. The foreigners tried to induce the natives to tell whence the gold came, but the information was refused. At last a Spanish priest, who had learnt their language, and who had, by his kindness and ministrations, ingratiated himself with these Indians, was taken to the place. The guides, however, insisted that the padre must be blindfolded and he consented; but he fastened a bag of corn to his belt and hid this under his cloak. Then as his mule walked along, at every few steps he dropped a kernel to "blaze his trail."

When the company finally stopped and the blind was taken from his eyes, the priest was dumbfounded at the quantity of rock he saw about him, all filled with veins of pure gold. While he was rejoicing at his own cleverness in making the discovery, and speculating upon the joy his report would cause the Viceroy, an Indian came to him and said: "Father, you dropped your corn as you came along; but I have picked it up for you and here it is, every grain. Please give me your blessing." It may be assumed that the priest complied; but his chagrin when he realised that his artifice had been detected and defeated, must be left to the imagination. There can be no good reason why Mexico should not advance from the fifth place in the list of gold-producing countries to the first.

There are yet many opportunities for strangers to invest capital profitably in Mexico; but it should be noted that the success of all kinds of enterprises has not inured to the benefit of the foreigner exclusively. There is to be found an increasing number of native capitalists who are themselves watching for chances to invest their accumulations. Some evidence of this is seen in the

fact that the Government has acquired a controlling interest in the railway system; for not all of the bonds issued for this purpose are held by foreigners. There are banks and many financial enterprises in the hands of Mexicans, and in many other ways a certain prosperity in some classes is evident. All this augurs well for the domestic character of future progress. It will doubtless be a long time before the foreign capitalists are wholly supplanted, yet there are not wanting indications that such a time is coming. Only, after all is said, it is upon peace and stability that The Coming Mexico depends.

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